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SOME ASPECTS OF AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING IN ASIA AND THE FAR EAST[1]

The third session of the ECAFE Working Party on Economic Development and Planning (1957, The Agricultural Sector), co-sponsored by Food and Agriculture Oragnization of the United Nations (FAO), recommended that the ECAFE and FAO secretariats "continue to collect data and undertake reviews of the agricultural and general economic development plans of the countries of the region and of the progress made in their execution, and . . . issue such studies for the information of member countries and the general public."[2]

The present paper has been prepared in response to that recommendation. The first section accordingly contains a review both of the current status of the economic development plans in the ECAFE region and of some recent developments in the planning and implementation of agricultural programmes.

The same session of the Working Party on Economic Development and Planning drew attention to a number of aspects of agricultural planning where improved knowledge was considered to be particularly desirable. One instance was the methods of forecasting future demand for agricultural products. This subject is discussed in the second section of this paper. The experience of two countries in the ECAFE region, India and Japan, in projecting the demand for foodstuffs and using these projections in the setting of targets of agricultural production is described in some detail. Some observations are also made on the priorities of statistics required for demand forecasting.

The Working Party pointed out the possibility of a conflict between plan objectives of exporting and importing countries of the region, particularly in regard to commodities such as rice, where the bulk of the trade is intraregional.

In order to illustrate the implications for national plans of other countries' development programmes and policies, the paper proceeds, in a third section, to indicate one prospective estimate of the supply and demand for rice, based on current development plans in the region. For countries which have not published production plans or targets, likely trends for production and demand have been estimated by the secretariat in order to complete the regional picture. It is stressed that this is not an attempt to make a definitive forecast of the supply and demand for rice. The countries of the region are invited to make available to the secretariat any additional relevant data that come to hand, in order that studies of this kind may be progressively improved.

I. CURRENT AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT PLANS IN THE ECAFE REGION

1. Over-all view

The agricultural planning efforts of the countries of the ECAFE region are being made against a background of steadily increasing demand for food and other agricultural products. The rapid increase of population alone necessitates a regular increase in supplies. In addition, the level of demand per head is being lifted by urbanization and rising *per capita* incomes. Developing industries are also requiring increasing amounts of agricultural raw materials. For most countries, agricultural products continue to be the main source of foreign exchange, which is required in increasing amounts for imports of consumption and developmental goods. Many countries are concerned about the slow rate of increase in agricultural productivity, and there are signs of a more intensive interest in methods and incentives likely to speed up that rate. In some cases, earlier programmes drawn up for agricultural development are being found inadequate.

Some general features of the economic development plans of sixteen countries of the ECAFE region are presented in table 1, which shows the present official status of the plans, their main characteristics and magnitude, and the share of agriculture in the projected total expenditures.[3]

Of the seventeen plans (including those of Taiwan and mainland China), twelve have been adopted, and are in the process of implementation. In two countries, plans are still in preparation or under consideration. In two others, the plans are under revision or awaiting approval, but developmental activities are under way, largely within the framework of the draft plans. For one country (southern Korea), only the sectoral plan for agriculture is mentioned in the table. Furthermore, China (Taiwan) and India are now formulating the third four-year plan (1961-1964) and the third five-year plan (1961/62-1965/66) respectively. In view of the fact that most of the goals set in the long-range economic plan have already been surpassed, Japan is also preparing a new plan aimed at doubling the national income in ten years.

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[1] This article has been prepared in the ECAFE/FAO Agriculture Division, and represents a substantial revision of the document on the same subject which was given mimeographed distribution in 1959 (E/CN.11/L.70).

[2] "Report of the Working Party on Economic Development and Planning (third session) to the Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East (fourteenth session)", in United Nations, *Economic Bulletin for Asia and the Far East* (November 1957), p.16.

[3] This is an up-to-date version of table 1 of the *Economic Bulletin for Asia and the Far East* (November 1957), in which the agricultural development plans of the ECAFE region were reviewed.

Since in Thailand, a three year initial plan which will become part of a later six-year plan (1961-1966) is under consideration, it is probable that all the independent countries of the region will, in the foreseeable future, have adopted economic development plans of varying comprehensiveness.

In countries for which information is available, the share of agriculture—defined to include also irrigation, multiple-purpose hydraulic projects, land development, community development and water resources investigations—in the total planned public expenditure ranges from 9 per cent (Laos) to 46 per cent (Afghanistan). Most commonly, it falls within the range of just below 20 per cent to somewhat over 30 per cent of the total.

No significant changes have taken place in the main stated objectives of the region's agricultural development plans since the previous review[4] in 1957. In addition to improved welfare for the farming community, the chief goals remain the improvement of the foreign trade balance — through a greater degree of self-sufficiency, import substitution, and increased exports — and the diversification of the pattern of agricultural production, both to satisfy domestic consumption and to stabilize export earnings. The creation of a base for the development of local processing industries is another stated objective of importance for a number of countries.

The following pages discuss certain recent developments in the planning and implementation of measures for agricultural progress in the ECAFE region. Some aspects of planning and development which appear to require special attention in the future are also indicated.

2. Delay in implementation of plans

It is evident that considerable progress has been made in the agricultural production of the ECAFE region in the last few years. In the five years 1954/55 to 1958/59, for example, the production of food in the region (excluding mainland China) rose by 7 per cent and that of cereals by 9 per cent. Although 1957/58 represented something of a setback owing to bad weather, the 1958/59 output reached the highest level yet recorded, and crops apparently continued to be large in 1959/60.

Despite such increases in food production, however, the actual output of foodgrains, especially rice, in a number of the countries of the region has lagged behind the production targets set in the economic development plans. Table 2 shows rice targets in nine countries in comparison with actual production in the base year and in 1958/59 and 1959/60. From the table, it is apparent that Japan has already exceeded its 1962 target. In 1958/59, which was on the whole a good season except in Pakistan, fairly satisfactory results were obtained in China: Taiwan and the Philippines, but the other countries were well below the final plan targets of one or two years ahead. Pakistan's output even fell below that of the base period. In 1959/60, which was also in general a favourable season, Pakistan completed its first plan period well short of the goal. China: Taiwan and Ceylon suffered setbacks, while Burma and southern Korea advanced. However, it seems unlikely that any of these countries, except Japan and possibly the Philippines, can reach its rice production target by the allotted time.

In many countries, it has not proved possible to maintain the planned schedule of agricultural development, either in regard to the capital outlay for developmental purposes, or in creating physical assets. In some cases, this may be a reflection of unreasonably high goals resulting from excessive optimism or ambition at the planning stage in view of the many needs to be met. Delays have also been caused by purely fortuitous circumstances such as crop failures, and delays in delivery of capital goods ordered from abroad. Internal political disturbances have hampered the implementation in some countries. An important part has been played by largely unavoidable economic factors. Foreign exchange reserves have in some cases been depleted with unexpected rapidity owing on the one hand to higher prices of imported capital goods and the necessity to import more food than was anticipated, and on the other to lower prices for the region's exports in the world markets. Domestic inflation has in some countries raised the costs of individual projects and rendered the governments reluctant to resort to further deficit financing. Finally, problems of organizing and co-ordinating various development activities have contributed to some delays in execution.

Not only has the implementation of agricultural plans suffered from the general lag in plan execution, as described above. In some cases, the plans have been implemented even more slowly in agriculture than in the other sectors, and the share of agriculture in the total capital outlay has been less than projected.

Thus, in Burma, while 43 per cent of the planned over-all expenditure was effected during the first two years of the four-year plan, in the agricultural sector expenditure was only 30 per cent of the goal, and only a moderate increase in the rate of spending was in sight for 1958/59. The share of agriculture was thus only 11.4 per cent of the total outlay in this period, as against the intended 18.4 per cent.

In India, the share of agriculture in the total plan expenditure under the second five-year plan has been maintained at the scheduled level, but the over-all tempo seems to have been somewhat slower than originally planned. A more important point is that the improvement of the physical base of agricultural production, i.e. land development, new irrigation facilities, and extension in the use of fertilizers, manures, improved seeds and better field techniques, has proceeded much more slowly than scheduled. Moreover, the facilities actually provided, especially in irrigation, have not all been fully utilized, although the situation is improving in this respect. In consequence of such delays, it has become doubtful whether all of the agricultural pro-

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[4] United Nations, *Economic Bulletin for Asia and the Far East* (November 1957), pp.27-36.

Table 1

ECAFE COUNTRIES: CHARACTERISTICS OF ECONOMIC OR AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT PLANS

(Expenditures in millions of indicated currency, unless otherwise stated)

Country and Currency	Plan				Total public expenditure	Public expenditure in agriculture[a]	
	Title and duration		Status	Characteristics		Amount	Percent of total public expenditure
Afghanistan; Afghani	Second five-year plan	1956/57-1960/61	Adopted	Public development expenditure plan, and estimates of private investment	4,991[b]	2,294	46
Burma; Kyat	Four-year implementation programme	1956/57-1959/60	Under consideration	Public development expenditure plan; annual plans of implementation being made within the framework of the four-year programme	2,461	434	18
Cambodia; Riel	Five-year plan	1960-1964	Under preparation	Public expenditure programme	...	...	...
Ceylon; Rupee	Ten-year plan	1959-1968	Published	Comprehensive perspective plan of public expenditure and polices, and estimates of private investment	13,600	3,328	24
China:							
Taiwan; New Taiwan dollar	Second four-year plan for the economic development of Taiwan	1957-1960	Adopted	Public development expenditure plan, and estimates of private investment	12,327	2,244	18
Mainland; Yuan	Second five-year plan	1958-1962	Adopted by the Chinese Communist Party	Comprehensive plan of public capital investment	...	...	...
Federation of Malaya; Malayan dollar	Five-year capital expenditure plan	1956-1960	Adopted	Public developmental expenditure plan	1,009	236	23
India; Rupee	Second five-year plan	1956/57-1960/61	Adopted	Comprehensive plan of public investment and policies, and estimates of private investment	48,000	10,540[c]	22
Indonesia; Rupiah	Five-year development plan	1956-1960	Adopted	Public development expenditure plan, and estimates of investments by the private and community sectors	12,500	3,237[d]	26
Iran; Rial	Second seven-year development plan	1956/59-1962/63	Adopted	Public expenditure programme	17,200	6,260	36
Japan; Billions of yen	New long-range econmic plan	FY 1958-FY 1962	Adopted	Projection of probable trends in a private enterprise economy	...	...	...
Korea, southern; Hwan	Five-year plan of agriculture	1958-1962	—	A plan for increasing agricultural production	...	...	...
Laos, Kip	Five-year plan	1959/60-1963/64	Adopted	Public development expenditure plan	2,758	251	9
Nepal, Mohur	Five-year plan	1956/57-1960/61	Adopted	Public development expenditure plan	330	103	31
Pakistan, Rupee	Second five-year plan	1960/61-1964/65	Adopted	Public development expenditure plan, and estimates of private investment	11,500	4,534	39
Philippines; Peso	1) Three-year economic and social development programme	1959/60-1961/62	Adopted by the National Economic Council	Programme of forward budgeting, revised annually within the broad framework of the draft economic and social development plan	1,067	147	13
	2) Five-year fiscal plan	1959/60-1963/64	Adopted	Public developmental expenditure plan, and estimates of private intestment	1,699	...	...
Viet-Nam, southern; Piastre	Five-year plan	1957-1961	Finalized; subject to adoption	Public developmental expenditure plan, and estimates of private investment	17,500	3,000[e]	17[e]

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[a] To make the figures comparable, the following items are included under agriculture: crop and livestock production, irrigation, land development, community development and extension, forestry, fisheries, multiple-purpose river projects, and investigation of future water resources for irrigation.

[b] Excluding the ordinary budget, which is mainly non-developmental.

[c] Some minor re-allocations between sectors were made in 1958 within the total expenditure. Exact information on these changes is not at hand, but their over-all effect on the share of agriculture in the total was small.

[d] Including migration.

[e] Excluding irrigation.

Table 2

NINE ECAFE COUNTRIES: PRODUCTION TARGETS OF RICE IN COMPARISON WITH THE BASE YEAR AND 1958/59-1959/60.

(Production in 1,000 tons)

Country	*Year*		*Production*				*Index of production (base year = 100)*		
	Base	*Target*	*Base year*	*1958 or 1958/59*[a]	*1959 or 1959/60*[b]	*Target year*	*1958/59*	*1959/60*[b]	*Target year*
Burma	1955/56	1960/61	3,817	4,284	4,550	4,810	112	119	126
Ceylon	1954	1960	441	519	506	638[c]	118	115	145[c]
China (Taiwan)	1956	1960	1,558	1,649	1,615	1,740[d]	106	104	112[d]
India	1955/56	1960/61	27,694	30,349	29,681	33,346	110	107	120
Indonesia	1955	1960	6,754	7,068	7,200	8,202	105	107	121
Japan	1956	1962	10,040	11,048	11,516	10,370	110	115	104
Korea, southern	1953-1957 average	1962	2,128	2,408	2,516	2,812	113	118	132
Pakistan	1948/49-1954/55 average	1959/60	8,453	8,058[e]	8,509	9,144	95[e]	101	108
Philippines	1955/56	1960/61	2,095	2,355	2,358	2,449	113	113	117

Note: All data are in terms of milled rice. Conversion factors (paddy to rice): Burma 0.65, Ceylon 0.68, China (Taiwan) 0.70, India and Pakistan 0.67, Indonesia 0.60, Japan 0.737, southern Korea 0.74, Philippines 0.64.

Source: 1. Base year and 1958 or 1958/59 data are actual production figures, as a rule from FAO sources.

2. Target figures:

Burma: Communication from the Central Bank of Burma.

Ceylon: Planning Secretariat, *Six-Year Programme of Investment, 1954-55 to 1959-60* (Colombo, 1955).

China (Taiwan): Ministry of Economic Affairs, "Review of 1959 Agricultural Production and Revision of 1960 Production Goals" (Taipei, February 1960).

India: Ministry of Food and Agriculture, *Report of the Foodgrain Enquiry Committee* (New Delhi, 1957).

Indonesia: National Planning Bureau, "Some Explanations on Indonesia's 1956-1960 Fiscal-Year Development Plan", *Ekonomic dan Kenangan Indonesia,* November 1956.

Japan: Economic Planning Agency, *New Long-range Economic Plan of Japan (FY 1958 — FY 1962).*

Korea, southern: Information obtained from the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, Seoul.

Pakistan: National Planning Board, *First Five Year Plan, 1955-60* (Karachi, 1957).

Philippines: National Economic Council, *Draft of Implementary Programme for the Agricultural Development Programme for FY 1957 — FY 1961* (Manila, 1956).

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[a] Except for Pakistan, the 1958 or 1958/59 crop was very good and, in China (Taiwan), India and the Philippines, reached the highest on record.

[b] Preliminary.

[c] Based on a conservative estimate of increases in yields per hectare.

[d] Revised target.

[e] The 1958/59 crop was a poor one. The 1956/57 crop, the largest next only to the 1953/54 crop, was 9,196,000 tons, and the corresponding index number was 109.

duction targets will in fact be reached. In the case of foodgrains, it is expected that by the end of the second plan period the revised target of 80.5 million long tons may not be reached, although the original target of 75 million long tons should be achieved.

In Indonesia, the over-all plan expenditure has proceeded at the scheduled pace, but the costs of implementation have risen, and the physical results have been much less than planned. In Pakistan, agriculture's share of the total expenditure has been maintained, but the over-all implementation has been slower than scheduled: 42 per cent of the total plan outlay was spent during the first three years of the five-year plan. Under the village development (V-AID) programme, only just over one-third of the target, in terms of the population covered, was reached during the first three years. Against a five-year target of 690,000 hectares of new irrigated area, only 160,000 hectares became available during the first three years, and irrigation facilities were improved on about 400,000 hectares, compared with the target of 1,540,000 hectares.

The formulation of agricultural plans is undoubtedly helping the countries in the more rational setting of objectives for development and in the institution of means to reach them. However, for the time being, two major deficiencies continue to handicap the planning in most countries of the region, namely lack or inadequacy of statistical data, and shortage of skilled personnel for both planning and implementation of programmes. The institutions and procedures of planning, too, are in some cases deficient. Shortcomings in the plans and delays in implementation are therefore not surprising. Some progress is being made in remedying the deficiencies.

3. Increased emphasis on food production

In 1958/59, nearly all the countries in the region made substantial gains in food production, but the rate of increase of output in recent years has not been sufficient to satisfy the rapidly increasing demand resulting from increases in population and per capita incomes. Taken as a whole, the region (excluding mainland China) has become increasingly—although still marginally—dependent on sources outside the region for its supplies of cereals: the net imports of cereals from outside the region—mainly wheat—which had decreased during several years to 4.7 million tons in 1955, rose in 1956 and 1957 by nearly 100 per cent to 9.4 million tons in the latter year, and remained high, at around 10 million tons, in 1958 and 1959. In some countries, the increased imports of cereals have been obtained from United States surplus stocks on concessional terms. In other cases, such food imports have led to a deterioration in the balance of payments, which, coupled with rising food prices caused by shortages of supplies, has retarded the development of the economy as a whole.

This situation, and the realization of the lags in the implementation of agricultural development plans, has focused the attention of both policy makers and the public on the importance for economic development of a more rapid increase in food production. This is apparent not only from the frequent public pronouncements made by politicians and administrators but also from the additional funds granted for programmes aiming at boosting the production of food crops, supplementing in some cases the provisions contemplated in earlier development plans.

In Pakistan, the second five-year plan has placed priority on agricultural production. The programme is aimed at attaining self-sufficiency in basic food production during the plan period, and at raising the dietary standards of the people through enhanced supplies of food products. By the end of 1964/65, the goal in foodgrain production will be an increase of 21 per cent over the base output (annual average of first plan period) of 13.4 million tons. A total of Rs 1,199 million is allocated for crop production. Measures to accomplish this will include the extensive use of fertilizers, control of plant pests and diseases, improved farm practices, expansion of the coverage of irrigation facilities, adoption of co-operative land management techniques to stimulate improvement of agricultural practices, and the formulation and execution of a nationally co-ordinated programme of agricultural research.

India's third five-year plan now being prepared will endeavour to correct earlier shortcomings and to carry further the programme which was started under the first and second plans, aiming at making the whole economy self-reliant and self-generating in order that the country may achieve a sustained take-off towards rapid economic development. To this end, self-sufficiency in foodgrains by 1965/66 will be the major objective of the agricultural programme.

In the Philippines, a special annual allocation of 20 million pesos has been made for a period of 5 years[5] (1958-1962) in order to increase the production of rice and maize, mainly by raising the yields through the use of fertilizer and better seeds. This is in addition to a fertilizer subsidy programme of nearly equal size. The increased rice output of 8.2 per cent in 1958/59 was associated with an intensified food production campaign, which is being continued. The government's activities in appropriating and developing new areas for resettlement purposes should also contribute to further increases in food production.

In Indonesia, 76 million rupiahs have been allocated for a short term programme of increasing the cultivated areas of food crops in certain outlying districts and of raising yields, and a further sum of 125 million rupiahs has been voted for opening up and cultivating mechanically some 200,000 hectares of paddy land in the next five years. In southern Viet-Nam, 200 million piastres is to be used for a programme which aims at encouraging the production of a second annual rice crop in a number of provinces and extending the use of chemical fertilizers, improved seeds and insecticides. In Burma, there is a shift of emphasis from expansion of area under rice to more intensive cultivation of the crop. Greater efforts are now being made in the diversification of agricultural production, since other countries of the region depending on the rice exports of Burma are increasing their domestic rice output.

In India, the national community development effort is being more strongly oriented towards raising agricultural production, and a new implementation experiment called the "package programme" is to be tried. Under this experiment, which will be supported by the Ford Foundation, one district in each of seven states will be selected for intensive agricultural development over a period of five years. The main feature of this will be a concentration of all the appropriate input factors in optimum amount—not only the physical factors such as fertilizers, implements, improved seeds, pesticides, irrigation, but also timely credit tied to farm production plans, improved marketing facilities including storage, and an assurance of a reasonable return for produce. The objective is to see if a break-through in agricultural productivity can be achieved by bringing to bear on a limited front a full range of the needed inputs and services in adequate amounts.

4. Institutions and incentives

It is widely recognized in the region that in most cases the production decisions of cultivators have to be taken in an economic and institutional framework under which it is uncertain that their extra efforts to increase production will bring them commensurate rewards. Many cultivators are under an obligation to pay a large share of their output as rent to landlords. Others are chronically in debt and have to pay exorbitant interest rates to money lenders who reap much of the benefit of higher yields. Others again have no alternative but to sell their crop to traders who are in a position to render less than full value for their produce.

The changing of this environment calls for far-reaching measures initiated by governments, including agrarian reforms, the provision of low-cost credit, marketing improvements, agricultural extension, and price policies. The 1957 meeting of the ECAFE Working Party on Economic Development and Planning drew the attention of governments in the region to the desirability of developing the necessary institutional measures as rapidly as possible, and of integrating them into plans for agricultural development.[6]

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[5] In the *Three-Year Program of Economic and Social Development (FY 1959 - '60 to FY 1961 - '62)*, no breakdown of food crops production is given.

Agrarian reform

In a number of countries of the region, defective land tenure systems stultify the farmers' initiative for the improvement of production and deaden the impact of economic plans. Agricultural development throughout the world is strongly motivated by the incentives of farmers, which may take the form of pride of ownership, security of occupancy, and the expectation of a just division of farm income between landlords and tenants. These factors have everywhere proved to be stimulants for land improvement. Experience in Japan and China: Taiwan, where land ownership was transferred to tenants since the war, confirms this general observation.

New, and in some case quite radical, steps in agrarian reform have recently been taken in the region. In Ceylon, the Paddy Lands Act, passed in February 1958, gives tenant cultivators of paddy lands inheritable rights to the land they are tilling and protects them against excessive rents and exorbitant rates of interest on loans. It also obliges them to maintain a reasonable standard of efficiency in production, and gives considerable authority and responsibility in matters regarding land to elected cultivators' committees in villages, although difficulties are being experienced in implementing the Act. In Pakistan, a sweeping programme of land reform was announced in February 1959, under which a total of some 3.5 million hectares of land will pass from the possession of large landholders to small cultivators. Formulation of uniform tenancy laws throughout the country is now under study. In India, earlier land reform legislation has been strengthened in some states. Thus, in Bombay State, legislation was enacted in 1957 under which all tenants cultivating land on 1 April 1957 were, subject to certain provisions, deemed to have purchased such land from their landlords on that day, and the basis for determining the purchase price was defined. In January 1959, the ruling party in India, the Indian National Congress, adopted a resolution on the "agrarian organizational pattern," advocating the development of co-operatives and joint farming, and recommending that legislation be passed during the year to fix ceilings on landholdings and to distribute the excess land to co-operatives of landless labourers, ownership being vested in village councils.

Earlier programmes of land reform are being carried forward. In Burma by mid-1958, 43 per cent of the 1.34 million hectares of nationalized land had been distributed to 190,000 cultivators.[7] In southern Viet-Nam by mid-1959, a total of 111,000 tenant farmers had become landowners, and a total of 338,000 hectares had been registered for redistribution.[8]

While the transfer of ownership to cultivators is in many countries considered a key step in providing incentives, many other aspects of agrarian reform require attention, such as consolidation of holdings. The problem of enforcing the implementation of legal provisions also remains. Moreover, while the improvement of agrarian structure demands constant attention, the steps taken have to be co-ordinated with improvements in supplementary services, such as credit and marketing facilities and technical advice, if there is to be a real improvement in the welfare of cultivators.

Agricultural credit

New credit institutions have been established during 1957-1959 in the Federation of Malaya, Indonesia, southern Korea, Pakistan, and the Philippines. In Pakistan, an Agricultural Bank was established in September 1957, and a number of branch offices have since been opened in various parts of the country. A main impediment to progress there is the shortage of trained personnel, and the Bank is running a training course for its own staff. The establishment of co-operative colleges which is now under way is being speeded up, with a view to providing additional trained personnel for the expansion of agricultural credit operations.

In Indonesia, Bank Tani dan Nelagan (Bank for Smallholders and Fishermen) was established in November 1957, with operating capital of 100 million rupiah subscribed by the government. Six provincial banks for co-operatives were established in 1959, and others were to be organized—a Central Bank for Co-operatives has been authorized. The Bank Ra'ayat (Rural Bank) of the Federation of Malaya was established in 1957 to take over the loan activities of the Rural and Industrial Development Authority of the Federation. It is thus concerned also with other than agricultural aspects of rural development. The Development Bank of the Philippines created in 1958 (otherwise known as the Rehabilitation Finance Corporation in prior years) launched its agricultural loan programme during 1959. In Thailand, it was announced in November 1959 that a Bank for Agricultural Credit was to be set up with a capital of 150 million baht, and associated district and provincial banks were to be started on the initiative of local farmers' groups.

The activities of existing agricultural credit institutions are being extended. In Burma, the State Agricultural Bank increased the number of its village banks from 440 in mid-1957 to a total of some 2,000 at the end of 1959, and government agricultural financing is being increasingly channelled through these institutions.

In the Philippines, both the membership of, and the loans granted by, the Agricultural Credit and Co-operative Financing Administration (ACCFA) have been rising steadily, and further expansion is planned, assisted by continued government contributions to the capital stock. The Agricultural Credit and Co-operative Institute at Los Banos, Laguna, has been formally opened to provide training in co-operatives and credit for personnel not only from the Philippines but also from other countries of Asia and the Far East.

In India, thanks to greatly increased financial assistance by the Reserve Bank of India, the loans advanced by primary credit societies in 1957/58 were nearly twice the total in 1956/57.[9] Successful experiments have been made in tying credit to the adoption of certain improved agricultural practices, notably the so-called Japanese method of paddy cultivation, under the supervision of agricultural extension staff.

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[6] United Nations, *Economic Bulletin for Asia and the Far East* (November 1957), p.16.

[7] Government of Burma, *Economic Survey of Burma 1959* (Rangoon, 1959), p.77.

[8] The Colombo Plan: *Eighth Annual Report of the Consultative Committee* (Jogjakarta, November 1959), p.179.

In Ceylon, proposals have been made for re-organizing the present system of co-operative agricultural financing including the creation of a Co-operative Development Bank.

In southern Korea, an important step in both agricultural credit and in agricultural marketing and price stabilization was taken in late 1957 with the initiation of a "rice lien loan" programme. Under this programme, cultivators were given certificates to the value of 80 per cent of the government standard market price for grain stored by them under lien, against which they received low interest loans from the newly reorganized Agricultural Bank. The grain thus stored was released according to a predetermined schedule during the food-year, and farmers repaid their loans from the proceeds. If food prices rose, the farmers could elect to sell their grain earlier. By this means, it was hoped to lessen considerably the seasonal fluctuations of grain prices. The first year's operations were considered a success, and the quantity of rice thus stored and the money lent were increased by 50 per cent in 1958. In 1959, however, the quantity of rice which was allowed to be secured under lien was limited in view of the much larger marketable supplies, hence the rice lien loan scheme was not able to prevent market prices from falling well below the level of a year earlier.

Despite the progress made in many countries, the shortage of reasonably priced and timely credit continues to be an important limiting factor to improvements in agricultural productivity in the region, and further expansion of institutional credit facilities is urgently needed. Not only are additional funds necessary for agricultural financing through institutions: steps need to be taken to establish a network of credit agencies in the villages, and to develop forms of operating that will permit public credit institutions to compete with private money lenders in convenience and timeliness of services.

Government price policy

During the postwar period, the chief aim of most of the price policies affecting domestically produced foodstuffs has been to stabilize the cost of living of the non-farm sectors. This is understandable, both because of the ever present threat of inflation in the developing economies of the region, and because of the low average level of consumer income. It is being increasingly recognized, however, that such a policy has at times discouraged producers from efforts to increase their output. Japan and Ceylon have been notable exceptions in attaching importance to producer price policies also, although for somewhat different reasons.[10]

In the last three years, however, there have been some signs of greater emphasis, in price policies, on providing producers with incentives or at least worthwhile price guarantees. Thus, in the Federation of Malaya, the floor price of paddy was lifted in 1956 to a level at which it became advantageous to more farmers to sell to the government. In Pakistan, when the procurement prices for wheat and rice were set in 1957 and 1958, the provision of an incentive to farmers for larger production and sale to government was one of the factors taken into account in deciding the price. In Burma the government purchase price of paddy was raised in 1959 for better qualities, and the government introduced early in 1960, a scale of payment which was raised as the year progressed in order to encourage storage in farms, which would assist in orderly marketing and price stabilization. In the new programme of state trading in rice and wheat in India, more account is being taken of the need to assure farmers specified minimum prices. If policies of guaranteed or incentive prices are to benefit producers rather than intermediaries, a wide network of official buying stations within easy reach of cultivators is necessary, and further steps to this end are being taken in many countries.

It is recognized that in some countries of the region a more suitable objective for price policies than support of farm prices at any given level is the elimination of large fluctuations in producers' and consumers' prices. This is particularly true of post-harvest falls and pre-harvest rises. The way in which this problem is tackled in southern Korea has already been described; similar goals are being pursued in a number of other countries.

5. A look at the future

It is clear that the gathering momentum of economic growth in countries of the region will in the coming years intensify the pressure upon the traditional agricultural systems. In view of the "stickiness" of the agricultural sector, resulting from many special factors, it is apparent that great efforts will be needed to increase both output and productivity in agriculture at the required rate. However, increases in output for each commodity must be closely related to effective demand for that commodity, if severe price fluctuations or surplus problems are to be avoided.

Planned development is thus likely to be a continuing feature of the agricultural scene. A study of the plans and policies as presently formulated and implemented in the various countries brings to light a number of points which require special attention.

Incentives to individual farmers

Unless the active participation of the millions of individual cultivators is enlisted in support of the national plans for increasing production, the agricultural sector may continue to be a brake on the pace of economic advance.

To induce the farmers to make greater efforts in producing the goods that are needed, it is not sufficient merely to find out how this can be done and to show the way. The cultivators must also have good prospects of a margin of benefit to themselves from an increase in their output. This may seem too obvious to be stated once more, but a review of the plans and their implementation suggests that the importance of incentives has not always been fully realized. The assurance of a remunerative price for produce is not the only form that the incentive can take. Improvements in the institutional environment, as described earlier, will also help to ensure that the cultivator's effort is rewarded.

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[9] Reserve Bank of India, *Proceedings of the Twelfth Meeting of the Standing Advisory Committee on Agricultural Credit* (Bombay, November, 1959), p.19.

[10] In Japan, the main motive has been that of maintaining the farm incomes, while in Ceylon the aim has been to induce larger production and marketing of foodstuffs.

Improved marketing

Efficient and economical marketing arrangements will contribute to the same end, by ensuring that the producers receive a "fair deal" and an equitable share of the ultimate consumer price for their products. In the absence of improvements in traditional marketing methods, individual cultivators can hardly be expected to do their best to produce larger crops, whatever may be the requirements for national welfare. Such improvement is being effected in many countries of the region, but some governments have not yet set up departments or services to take care of this matter.

Agricultural extension

Only in a few countries of the region have agricultural advisory services and agricultural education made much progress. Shortages of funds and of suitably trained personnel have been important limiting factors. However, the key contribution of qualified extension services to the improvement of agricultural productivity is gaining attention. Thus, the fourth FAO Regional Conference for Asia and the Far East (Tokyo, 1958) requested the FAO Secretariat to undertake surveys of agricultural education and agricultural extension services in countries of the region, with a view to facilitating a discussion on means of improving national services in these fields. These surveys have been completed, and the reports will be considered by government representatives.

Capital formation in agriculture

Productivity in agriculture in the ECAFE region can be increased considerably without much additional capital investment on the farm by using more rational methods of cultivation. That such improvements are gradually taking place everywhere in the region is evident. To secure the long-term increase in productivity that is necessary, however, greatly increased capital formation is called for in agriculture. The considerable amount of public investment in agriculture in the form of land development, irrigation facilities, roads, experimental and seed production farms, and so on, is well known, but such investment may need to be expanded.

Whether a continuous process of private capital formation is taking place in the agricultural sector is less certain. There is in many of the region's farm areas a large surplus of manpower for much of the year. This surplus labour can be mobilized for capital formation on individual holdings, where advice, incentives and leadership are provided. A large scale transformation of unused labour capacity into capital assets by centralized effort is now being attempted in mainland China. Other countries are relying on the technique of community development for the same purpose, and some systematic studies of this approach are now in hand. The long-run significance of a high rate of private and communal capital formation in agriculture is undisputed. More studies are required of the actual process of such capital formation now taking place, and of the steps needed to create a favourable environment for such efforts.

Improved techniques of planning

Since the early postwar days of sometimes uncritical enthusiasm, considerable progress has been made in the ECAFE region towards improving agricultural and general economic development planning. Nevertheless, the tools of development planning are still crude, and many of the economic goals towards which the countries of the region are striving have been set up by rule of thumb. This is particularly true of the agricultural sector, where often only the roughest indications are available of the likely development of production and demand.

Appraisals of future demand for agricultural products are indispensable if systematic and realistic agricultural planning is to be undertaken. This view was emphasized by the ECAFE Working Party on Development Planning in the agricultural sector (Bangkok, 1957), and endorsed by the FAO Regional Conference for Asia and the Far East, held in October 1958 at Tokyo. The serious study of demand has not yet progressed very far in the region.[11]

It is equally important to have a better knowledge of the responses in production to be expected from planned innovations in agriculture, such as institutional changes, fertilizing, irrigation, and the extension of improved practices. In many cases, this need can be met only by well-designed scientific experimentation, or intensive evaluation studies of earlier developmental changes and expenditures. Some exchange between countries of experience in the methodology of this aspect of planning might, however, be helpful.

Resource appraisal is another aspect of agricultural development planning in which the scientific basis is seriously deficient in many countries of the region. A few countries have a fair knowledge of some of their main agricultural resources, but speaking generally there is an immediate need for better data on land and soils, and on forest, water and fishery resources. Planning cannot await the completion of surveys, but it is urgently necessary for plans to include better provision for progressive work in resource appraisal.

Individual countries will be affected by the development plans and policies of other countries in the region, and the importance of a continuing assessment of these effects has been stressed by various regional meetings held recently under the auspices of ECAFE and FAO. Basically, each country will undertake such assessments for itself when planning its own development. However, there is a fruitful field of work in the compilation and exchange of information on the factual basis for such appraisal, and in developing suitable analytical methods[12] International organizations may have a special role in this work. FAO has recently decided[13] to undertake studies in the projection of demand and supply for important agricultural products.

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[11] Methods of projecting demand for foodstuffs, and the utilization of such projections in planning, are discussed in the next section of this paper.

Experience has shown that, in the conditions typical of the region, the resources available for economic development tend to fluctuate widely in the short run. This is particularly so in the case of foreign exchange. The food situation, depending upon annual weather conditions, is another variable factor. Such uncertainties in the short run have brought home the need for flexibility in the planning and implementation of development programmes. Consequently, increasing emphasis is placed in several countries—for instance Burma, Pakistan and the Philippines—on annual revision of the plans, and on the establishment of annual implementation programmes, usually considered simultaneously with the government budget.

On the other hand, the importance is being recognized of longer range perspective planning covering periods of some 15 to 25 years. This is of special significance in agricultural planning, both because of the long maturing period in certain types of production (e.g. tea, rubber, coconuts, livestock products) and because of the time needed to change established patterns of production. In mainland China, a twelve-year (1956-1967) plan for agricultural development has been in operation. In Japan and India, steps are being taken to make perspective planning a regular part of the planning process. In Burma, a plan of this kind was prepared in 1955-1956.[14] In Ceylon, a ten-year plan frame was completed in 1959. The fourth FAO Regional Conference for Asia and the Far East (Tokyo, October 1958), after a discussion on measures to improve agricultural development planning, suggested that a "three-layer" system of planning might usefully be adopted by countries of the region. This would consist of (a) a 15 to 25 year broad perspective plan, (b) several successive three to five-year plans with more specific objectives within the framework of the perspective plan, and (c) annual programmes of implementation linked with the annual budget, and flexible enough to take account of results achieved and changes in the situation.

In several countries, the procedures and institutions required for effective agricultural development planning have been carefully thought out, but elsewhere they are often rather rudimentary, and allow important considerations to escape review. In some cases also, the methods and organization for the implementation of agricultural development need further attention. The choice of measures to be adopted by governments in order to achieve the production targets is particularly important in agriculture, since government action and investment can only go part of the way. The production decisions that are important for the achievement of national targets will be those taken by very large numbers of farmers. The planners cannot take these decisions. However, they must not fail to include in the plan, for consideration and adoption along with it, provision for measures of inducement, incentive, organization and advice calculated to promote and guide the producer's decisions in line with the planned objectives, taking due account of the limitations to such inducements.

The considerable interest of Asian countries in more effective agricultural planning was reflected in the discussion of the subject at the FAO Regional Conference (Tokyo, 1958) to which some reference has already been made. The Conference recommended that FAO, possibly in conjunction with ECAFE, should convene a group of experts to examine certain technical problems of target setting in agriculture. This meeting of experts will be held in Bangkok in November 1960. Some countries seemed to be less interested in refinements of planning techniques while their basic data were so deficient. The Conference therefore also asked FAO to convene a regional meeting on a broad basis, comprising economists, agriculturists, nutritionists and resource experts, who would draw up some general principles for realistic agricultural planning.

Improvements in the methods of planning and implementing agricultural development programmes will help to avoid wasteful use of scarce resources. In effecting these improvements, the countries of the region can draw on assistance from the United Nations, FAO and other specialized agencies, for the purpose of training personnel, and obtaining expert guidance on particular problems.

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[12] One method of approach in relation to the most important crop in the region, namely rice, is set out in a later section of this paper.

[13] Tenth FAO Conference, Rome, November, 1959.

[14] Government of Burma, "Report of the Union Land and Agricultural Planning Commission" (31 March, 1956).

II. ESTIMATION OF FUTURE DEMAND FOR FOODSTUFFS IN AGRICULTURAL PLANNING

1. Importance of projections of demand for food in economic development planning

In the context of an integrated national economic development plan, the formulation of targets of agricultural production is essentially an attempt to relate the productive capacities of the country's agriculture to the requirements of the expanding economy for agricultural products, both for domestic consumption and for export, over a certain period of time.

The basic aim is to secure a rapid growth of agricultural production, without causing imbalances between demand and supply, or between agriculture and other sectors of the economy. If the production of foodstuffs falls short of the demand, the deficit will lead to rising prices for foodstuffs and inflation of the general price level. Attempts to correct the imbalance by means of larger imports of foodstuffs may necessitate the cutting down of other imports, including goods of direct importance for economic development. If, on the other hand, the output of any agricultural product exceeds the demand, a surplus will appear on the market, leading to low prices and possibly a decline in producers' incomes. This may depress the demand for products of industry, and may also discourage further efforts to increase farm production later.

The importance of balancing the demand and supply of foodstuffs is heightened in low income countries by the fact that a large proportion of income is spent on food, food prices thus have a strong influence on the cost of living and the general price level. Moreover, a large part of the extra income generated by developmental expenditures is quickly reflected in an additional demand for foodstuffs. The rate of expansion in available food supplies is therefore one of the important factors which determine the rate of investment that an economy can sustain without building up excessive inflationary pressure. Hence the relevance to general economic planning of forecasting the level of demand for foodstuffs associated with various rates and types of investment.

The preparation of demand forecasts, however, requires a considerable body of statistical material, some of it of a kind not commonly available in economically less developed countries. And, needless to say, even under the best of conditions a margin of uncertainty is inevitable.

It is therefore not surprising that, although such forecasting is recognized as a desirable part of comprehensive economic development planning, it has been attempted in a systematic way only in one or two countries of the ECAFE region. In most of the agricultural development plans currently followed or under consideration targets are the result of rather approximate methods of accounting.

In order to demonstrate concretely the methods that can be used in the projection of domestic demand for foodstuffs[15] and the type of statistical information required, the experience of two countries, Japan and India, is described below.

It is not suggested that all other countries of the region should adopt these methods as models for their own immediate use. Rather they should be taken as an indication of the direction in which the countries should move in the course of improving their methods of economic development planning.

2. Japan

Plan estimate

In an estimate of the total demand for various foods in Japan in 1962—the target year of the current economic development plan[16]—four factors were considered:

1. Projected growth of the population;
2. Anticipated increase of the national income;
3. Effect of the projected increase in *per capita* incomes on consumption of various foods;
4. Nutritional considerations.

The population increase was estimated at 0.8 per cent a year. The anticipated increase in national income over the plan period was equivalent to a rate of 6.5 per cent a year, representing an increase in *per capita* incomes of about 5.7 per cent annually.

A considerable amount of statistical material is available in Japan for the estimation of the effects of the rise in incomes on the level and pattern of food consumption, notably the recurrent sample surveys of incomes and expenditures of urban wage earners and farm families.[17] On the basis of these data, it is possible to study the expenditure on, and consumption of, various individual food items and of all food items together by families at various income levels, at a given moment of time or over a period of time.[18]

It is customary in studies of this kind to express the effect of income on consumption in terms of the percentage change in consumption that is associated with a one per cent change in income per head. Thus, a value of, say, + 0.5 would indicate that, as income changes by one per cent (other factors remaining constant), the consumption of the item in question would change by 0.5 per cent in the same direction as the income.

Such values—known as income elasticity coefficients—were calculated in Japan for all the important food items for the urban and rural groups separately, then over-all national values were arrived at by taking account of the relative proportions of the total quantity of the various food items consumed by each of the two groups of consumers.[19]

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[15] Attempts to forecast domestic demand for industrial raw materials of agricultural origin and the trends of overseas demand for agricultural products are also highly relevant, but require separte treatment. Some aspects of the latter are discussed in section III of the present paper. For further discussion, see United Nations, *Economic Bulletin for Asia and the Far East* (November 1957), pp.40-46.

For trend studies of foreign trade which may help governments of the region in assessing the export prospects for their agricultural products, see the following publication: FAO, *The State of Food and Agriculture*, 1956, chapter III; United Nations, *Economic Survey of Europe in 1957*, chapter V; *Economic Survey of Asia and the Far East, 1959*, Part II; OEEC, *Europe in 1960* (Report No. 8, Vol.II); GATT, "The Possible Impact of the European Economic Community, in particular the Common Market, on the World Trade" (Trade Intelligence Paper No. 6), and GATT, *Trends in International Trade — A Report by a Panel of Experts* (Geneva, 1958).

[16] Japanese Government, Economic Planning Agency, *New Long-range Economic Plan of Japan* (FY 1958 — FY 1962; Tokyo, 1957).

[17] See *Annual Report of Family Income and Expenditure Survey*, published each year by Bureau of Statistics, Office of the Prime Minister, Japan, for data on urban consumers, and *Report of the Survey of Farmers' Family Budgets* (in Japanese), published annually by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, Japan, for data on farm families.

[18] In Japan, the surveys of urban and rural households have been carried out in their present form since 1950 and 1949, respectively.

[19] In the first instance, the income elasticity coefficients were calculated in three different ways, namely (a) from time series data based on household budget surveys, (b) from time series data based on food balance sheets and national income statistics, and (c) from cross sectional data based on the same household budget statistics as were used in method (a). For most items, the results yielded by method (a) were accepted as the elasticity coefficients on which to base the demand projections.

Briefly, the method of calculation was as follows: The index numbers of *per capita* real consumption expenditure (called the consumption level index) for years 1951-1956 (1951 = 100) were taken as the measure of the changes in the average income level and used as the independent variable. The dependent variables were the index numbers of average *per capita* consumption of each food item by the two groups (urban and rural), for the same period. For each food item, then, six figures were obtained in each consumer group, corresponding to the six annual figures for the consumption level index. The elasticity coefficients were then arrived at by plotting the independent and dependent variables on a double logarithmic chart and by fitting a straight line through the resulting six dots by eye (on least square criterion). The slope of the line indicated, by definition, the average income elasticity of demand for the food item in question. The coefficients for urban and rural consumers were then fused in a combined elasticity value.

A time series calculation covering only six years can be criticized on the grounds that it is too short a period for reliable results, both because income changes in such a short period are likely to be too small to give a clear indication of the process of change, and because the scattering of values is likely to be so wide as to make it difficult to fit a straight line through the dots with any great certainty. For a more detailed description of the methods used and for the actual elasticities arrived at by different methods, see "Estimation of Demand for Food", a paper submitted by the Japanese Government to the third session of the Working Party on Economic Development and Planning, Bangkok, September 1957 (Documents DPWP 3/6 and Corr. 1).

Next, the values thus arrived at were used to calculate the percentage increase in the *per capita* consumption of each of the food items that could be anticipated on the basis of the projected increases in *per capita* incomes, namely 5.7 per cent a year. For instance, an income elasticity value of + 0.5 would result in an annual increase in consumption by one-half of the annual percentage increase in income, i.e. by 2.85 per cent a year, equal to about 18 per cent over the entire plan period 1956-1962. The percentage increases thus arrived at were then applied to the actual levels of consumption *per capita* of the various food items in the base year 1956. The results showed the projected quantities of individual foods likely to be consumed per head in 1962. Subsequently, these results were checked against nutritional considerations.

A summary of the income elasticity coefficients accepted and the projections of *per capita* consumption finally arrived at for individual foods in 1962 is presented in table 3.

Table 3

JAPAN: INCOME ELASTICITY COEFFICIENTS OF SELECTED FOODS AND THEIR PROJECTED *per capita* CONSUMPTION IN 1962

Food	*Income elasticity co-efficient*	*Consumption, grammes per day per head*		
		Base year[a]	*1962*[b]	*% change*[b]
Rice	0.0	297	297	0
Barley (polished) . . .	— 0.6	47	38	— 19
Wheat	+ 0.1	69	71	+ 3
Sweet potatoes	— 1.2	75	49	— 35
White potatoes	0.0	47	50	+ 7
Soy beans	+ 0.6	11	13	+ 22
Other pulses	0.0	10	10	0
Fruits	+ 1.2	35	52	+ 48
Vegetables	+ 0.5	200	204	+ 2
Meats	+ 1.2	7.2	9.0	+ 25
Eggs	+ 1.2	9.2	13.6	+ 48
Milk and milk products .	+ 2.0	39	69	+ 77
Edible oil	+ 1.2	8.2	12.1	+ 48
Sugar	+ 0.6	35	43	+ 22
Total intake of:				
Calories	—	2,143[c]	2,209[c]	+ 3.1
Proteins	—	65.1	68.2	+ 4.8

Source: Government of Japan, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, "Reference Tables for the Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries Sections of the New Long-range Economic Plan" (in Japanese).

[a] 1954-1956 annual average or 1956.

[b] For certain commodities, account has also been taken of factors other than income elasticity of demand.

[c] Calories.

It will be noted that the *per capita* consumption of all cereals together is expected to diminish over the plan period as a whole. This is due to an anticipated decrease in the consumption of barley. Barley is considered an inferior substitute for rice, and its *per capita* consumption decreases as the income rises. The largest relative increases are expected to take place in the consumption of foodstuffs of higher price and, as a rule, higher nutritional value, such as fruits, meats, dairy products, fats and oils, and sugar.[20]

The final step of the demand projection was the calculation of the effect of the projected population growth, 0.8 per cent a year, on the demand for the various food items, in order to estimate the total quantities of the various foods that would be required in 1962.

The agricultural production targets were then established in the light of the projections of demand and the possibilities of production increases. The necessary changes in the emphasis of production—entailing a relatively larger output of livestock products, oilseeds, fruits, and some other foodstuffs in high demand—are apparently expected to result partly from the producers' response to market demand, and partly from agricultural policies designed to encourage the production of particular items. The total agricultural output is anticipated to increase during the plan period by 21.5 per cent. Crop production is to increase by 14.6 per cent, and livestock production by 62.6 per cent.

A corollary of the projections of demand and domestic production is a programme of agricultural exports and imports. The over-all effect on agricultural imports of the anticipated changes in production and consumption of agricultural products is expected to be an increase (in value, at constant prices) of 9.7 per cent during the plan period, while agricultural exports are expected to increase by 27.6 per cent.

Tentative estimate for 1969

An attempt was made towards the end of 1959 by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry to project the demand for and production of foodstuffs in 1969, primarily with a view to providing a forward look necessary for the determination of future lines of agricultural policy, but not for the formulation of a development plan.[21]

In the projection of demand, a careful examination was at first made of a number of different values of the income elasticity coefficient for each commodity which had so far been calculated by the time series or cross section method on the basis of food balance sheets and national income statistics or rural and urban family budget data covering different periods of time. As a consequence of such examination and taking also into account opinions of commodity experts, the value of the income elasticity coefficient to be applied was decided,[22] which differs greatly from the value given

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[20] Sugar, however has little nutritional value except as a source of calories.

[21] See Basic Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries Problem Investigation Council, "Tentative Projections of Demand for and Supply of Agricultural Products" (November 1959) and "Items to be Investigated in Relation to the Basic Agricultural Problems" (December 1959).

[22] The income elasticity coefficients which had been adopted for major foodstuffs to be used for direct human consumption were as follows:

Rice	— 0.045	Fruits	+ 1.2
Barley	— 1.6	Meats	+ 1.34
Wheat	— 0.1	Eggs	+ 1.03
Sweet potatoes	— 0.7	Milk	+ 1.85
White potatoes	+ 0.3	Fats and oils	+ 1.2
Soy beans	+ 0.3	Sugar	+ 0.6
Vegetables	+ 0.1	Fish	+ 0.4

in table 3. For each commodity, in fact different values of such coefficient were used for direct human consumption and for processing. Seed requirements and wastage were calculated as a certain percentage of the total requirements.

The demand in 1969 for each commodity was then estimated by applying to actual figures for available supplies in 1958 the income elasticity coefficients thus obtained and the assumed rates of growth of population and *per capital* incomes. During the projected period, population growth was estimated at 0.7 per cent annually. The growth of national income was assumed in three ways, i.e. at an annual rate of (a) 7.2 per cent (b) 5 per cent and (c) 4 per cent, representing an annual increase in *per capita* incomes of (a) 6.5 per cent, (b) 4.3 per cent and (c) 3.3 per cent respectively. For each commodity, therefore, three different estimates were made accordingly.

On the other hand, the production for 1969 of each crop was projected on the basis of the prospective increase in its yield per unit area and of prospective changes in the area under the crop concerned. Prospective rates of increase in yield per unit area for crops as well as in the output of livestock products had been obtained by extending trend lines based on the past data.

A simple comparison between the demand and production thus projected shows that in 1969 rice production will exceed domestic demand to the extent of 300,000 tons to 500,000 tons, while declining wheat output will increasingly fall short of internal requirements; if per capita incomes increase at a rate of 6.5 per cent annually, the demand in 1969 for milk, meat and eggs will greatly exceed the domestic production. In addition to such "regular" projections, "planned" projections were also attempted, taking into account probable policy intentions regarding farm incomes and greater degree of self-sufficiency. Various technical and institutional factors were also taken into consideration. In comparison with the regular projections, the result is an increase in the rice surplus and a smaller rise in wheat imports.

3. India

Second plan estimates

The original estimates[23] of requirements of foodstuffs during the period of the second five-year plan of India (1956/57—1960/61) were based on the following considerations[24]:

(a) The population growth, estimated at 1.25 per cent a year. By 1961, the total population would, at that rate, reach about 410 million, equivalent to 352.6 million adult units (converted at 86 per cent).

(b) The necessity to provide for an increase in the *per capita* calorie intake of the population and to improve the quality of the diet. The announced long-run goal—to be reached, tentatively, by 1971—is to raise the calorie intake per adult unit from the 1955 level of 2,050 calories per day to 3,000. In the course of the second plan, the original aim was to reach an intake of 2,600 calories per day per adult unit.

(c) The projected increase of 17.8 per cent in the *per capita* national income during the second plan period. The *per capita* total consumption expenditure was projected to rise by about 13 per cent.

The discussion that follows relates to foodgrains[25] for which more of the relevant information is available than in the case of other foods.

The original goal of the second plan was to increase the availability of foodgrains per adult unit from the level of 1955/56, equal to 17 ounces a day to 18.3 ounces a day in 1960/61—an increase of 7.6 per cent. Of the latter figure, 15.5 ounces were to be cereals and 2.8 ounces pulses. The total foodgrains intake would be larger than that recommended for balanced diet by the Nutritional Advisory Committee, namely 14 ounces of cereals and 3 ounces of pulses. This was considered necessary, as it was thought impossible to increase the production of protective foods sufficiently during the plan period.

The effect of income increment on consumption of food was considered in a general way as being one of the factors that would tend to raise the *per capita* consumption of food. The results of several household budget surveys that had been carried out in preceding years in both urban and rural areas of India were available, but the use made of them in these estimations has not been indicated.

It was "proposed that the additional production (of foodgrains) to be aimed at by 1960-61 should be limited to 10 million (long) tons in all, of which 8.5 million (long) tons will be cereals and 1.5 million (long) tons pulses"[26] and the target for 1960/61 was therefore set at 75 million long tons. The world "limited" was used apparently because it was felt that "any large increase in production of cereals and pulses alone is likely to create marketing and other problems".[27]

In late 1956, however, all agricultural production targets were revised upwards—that of foodgrains to 80.4 million long tons. The revisions were apparently not based on any systematic demand projections but are to be taken rather as *ad hoc* estimates of the likely demand and the production possibilities.

Two other estimates of the requirements of foodgrains during the plan period have been made. One is that of R. Dayal,[28] made in 1956, and the other that of the Foodgrains Enquiry Committee, a year later.[29]

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[23] The original targets of agricultural production under the second plan were revised upwards in late 1956.

[24] Government of India, Ministry of Food and Agriculture, *Proposals for Second Five-Year Plan Agricultural Sector* (May 1955), p.33.

[25] In Indian terminology, foodgrains include both cereals (rice, wheat, barley, maize, millets and sorghums) and pulses (gram, tur, and other pulses). These terms will be used here.

[26] *Op.cit.*, pp.33-34.

[27] *Op.cit.*, p.33.

The Foodgrain Enquiry Committee estimate

The Foodgrains Enquiry Committee, which made its study in 1957, had access to later basic data than were available either to the Planning Commission at the time its estimates were made or to Dayal. In the first place, new estimates of population growth had been made which indicated that the original estimate, 1.25 per cent a year, may have been too low. The Committee based its calculations on a growth rate of 2 per cent a year. Secondly, the results of household budget studies carried out in later rounds of the National Sample Survey (NSS) were available. The Committee estimated the effect of income increments on the consumption of foodgrains on the basis of data collected in the tenth round, conducted in December 1955-May 1956.[30]

The following factors were considered by the Committee in estimating the requirements of foodgrains during the second plan period:

(a) Population growth and urbanization. As already mentioned, the Committee assumed that the population would grow at the rate of 2 per cent a year. The fact that urban population, which is increasing faster than rural population, apparently consumes on the average about one-fifth less of cereals per head than the rural population necessitated separate consideration of the two groups. Assuming that the relation between the rates of growth of population in rural and urban areas in 1956-1961 would remain the same as it has been in recent years, the Committee estimated that population growth would lead to an increase in demand for cereals by 26.3 per cent in the urban areas, and by 6.8 per cent in the rural areas during the plan period. This is equal to an increase by about 10 per cent in the country as a whole.

(b) Increasing incomes. On the basis of the 25 per cent increase in the national income projected by the plan, a 2 per cent rate of population growth, and the relative *per capita* income levels and rates of population growth in urban and rural areas, the Committee estimated that the total consumption expenditure *per capita* would increase by 10 per cent in rural areas and 4 per cent in urban areas.

From data gathered in the tenth round of the NSS, the Committee estimated that, for each one per cent increase in the total *per capita* expenditure on all items of consumption, the expenditure on cereals would increase by a half per cent in rural areas and by less than a quarter per cent in urban areas. As no specific information was available for pulses, these relationships were assumed to hold for them also and therefore for all foodgrains.

After making allowance for the effect of some reduction in the inequality of income distribution, the Committee came to the conclusion that the effect of the anticipated rise in incomes would be an increase in *per capita* expenditure on foodgrains by 5.5 per cent in rural areas, by 1.2 per cent in urban areas, and by 4.7 per cent in the country as a whole. As some of the extra money spent on foodgrains would probably be used to purchase more expensive grains, the physical quantity of foodgrains consumed per head of population was estimated to increase by some 4.0-4.5 per cent.

The Committee then combined the effects of all the factors considered, and came to the conclusion that the total demand for foodgrains—both for human consumption and for other purposes—would increase during the plan period by between 14.4 and 15.0 per cent. This rate of increase was applied to the 1955-57 average annual gross availability of foodgrains, which was slightly over 69 million long tons, leading to an estimate of about 79 million long tons as the demand in 1960/61.

The three Indian demand projections just described, together with Dayal's estimates, are summarized in table 4. In a comparison of the results, it is well to remember that the various estimates were based on considerably different values for two of the important factors involved, namely the rate of population growth, and the effect of income increments on consumption. The starting points are also different. Methodologically, the projection of the Foodgrains Enquiry Committee appears to be the most elaborate; and the basic data at the Committee's disposal were probably better than those used in the other estimates.

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[28] R. Dayal, "Demand for Food in the Second Five-Year Plan", in *Agricultural Situation in India,* October 1956, pp.468-488.

Starting from the population and income projections of the second plan, Dayal based his estimates — which refer to cereals only, excluding pulses—on household budget surveys carried out in four townships (Faridabad, Rajpura, Kingsway and Tripura) in 1952-1954 and, for the rural sector, on the fourth round of the National Sample Survey (NSS), carried out in 1952 on an all-India basis. Regarding the effect of income increments on cereal consumption, he came to the conclusion that, for each one per cent increase in *per capita* incomes, an increase of between 0.40 and 0.65 per cent could be expected in the *per capita* expenditure on cereals.

Basing his calculations on the value at the lower end of the range (0.40), and allowing for some improvement in the quality of the cereals consumed, he estimated the total additional consumption of cereals as food during the second plan period at 4.8 million long tons. Another 0.5 million long tons was added for additional consumption as feed. Further, in view of the likely persistence of inflationary trends during the plan period, allowance was made for an increase by 2.0 million long tons in the demand for stocks. The effect of income redistribution on consumption was considered to be negligible. The total additional demand was thus estimated at 7.3 million long tons. When, finally, allowance was made for seed, waste and other uses, the total increase in annual availability of cereals required by the end of the second plan period was put at 8.0 million long tons.

A similar calculation, using the higher value for income elasticity (0.65), indicated that the increase required would be about 9.5 million long tons annually.

[29] Government of India, Ministry of Food and Agriculture, *Report of the Foodgrains Enquiry Committee* (New Delhi, 1957).

[30] The Committee's estimates have been criticized for having been based on the results of this one round only, since the expenditure elasticities of demand calculated from various rounds of the NSS have shown a rather steady tendency to decline over a period of several years. For data on this, see "Trend of Consumption of Food and Foodgrains in India", in *Studies in Indian Economies* (J.P. Bhattacharjee, ed.) (The Indian Society of Agricultural Economics, Bombay, 1958), pp.188-221.

Table 4

INDIA: ESTIMATES OF DEMAND FOR FOODGRAINS[a] DURING THE SECOND FIVE-YEAR PLAN

(Million long tons)

Estimate	*1955/56*	*1960/61*	*Increase during the period*	
			Absolute	*per cent*
Original Plan estimate				
Cereals:				
Total demand	54.5[b]	63.7[c]	9.2	16.9
Human consumption[d]	47.7	55.7	8.0	16.8
Foodgrains:				
Total demand	65.3[b]	75.1[c]	9.8	15.0
Human consumption[d] . . .	57.1	65.7	8.6	15.1
Revised Plan Estimate				
Foodgrains:				
Total demand	65.3[b]	80.4	15.1	23.1
Dayal[e]				
Cereals:				
Human consumption[d] . . .	46.7[f]	51.5	4.8	10.3
Plus additional demand for stocks (2 million long tons)	—	53.5	6.8	14.6
Plus allowance for feed, seed waste = total demand . . .	53.4[f]	61.4	8.0	15.0
Total demand, estimated on basis of a higher income elasticity co-officient . . .	53.4[f]	62.9	9.5	17.8
FGEC[g]				
Foodgrains, total demand . .	69.0[h]	79.0	10.0	14.5

[a] See footnote 25 on page 14.

[b] Actual production in 1955/56. Net imports of foodgrains (520,000 long tons in 1955 and 1.38 million long tons in 1956) ignored.

[c] Calculated on basis of data given in the plan.

[d] 12.5 per cent deducted for feed, seed and waste.

[e] R. Dayal, "Demand for Food in the Second Five-Year Plan", in *Agricultural Situation in India,* October 1956.

[f] Dayal's figures. The actual production in 1955/56 was 54.5 million long tons.

[g] Government of India, Ministry of Food and Agriculture, *Report of the Foodgrains Enquiry Committee,* (New Delhi 1957).

[h] Average annual gross availability in 1955-1957, assuming that stock exchanges cancel each other.

4. Order of priorities in statistics for demand forecasting

In view of the number of fields in which data are lacking in most countries of the region, and the shortage of funds and personnel which prevents a rapid expansion of the statistical services, the countries of the region must obviously establish a rather strict order of priorities in improving their statistics. Although some general recommendations on such priorities can be made, the final choice depends largely on the circumstances of the country in question. The following observations refer to data for demand forecasting.[31]

Population

In countries where the population is increasing rapidly while the *per capita* incomes grow only slowly, the rate of population growth is the main determinant of rising demand for agricultural products. Reasonably accurate projections of population growth must therefore have a high priority on this as well as other grounds.

Income

Projections of national income totals are usually an integral part of any comprehensive economic development plan. In the ECAFE region, they are made difficult by insufficient information on past rates of income growth, investment, and other relevant data. Primary exporting economies, in which the tempo of economic activity is heavily dependent on the state of the world markets, are faced with special uncertainties in this regard. They will nevertheless find it necessary to make some projections of national income for purposes of planning, perhaps on the basis of several alternative assumptions regarding the development of the most important of the uncertain factors, such as volume and prices of main exports. Such projections,[32] expressed per head of population, can be utilized in the forecasting of effective demand for foodstuffs.

Commodity balance sheets for individual agricultural products

The more complete and accurate the knowledge of the present pattern of supply and disposal of individual agricultural commodities, the more reliable the quantitative forecasts of future changes in the requirements. Such knowledge depends in the first place on the reliability of the basic statistics of agricultural production, which need improvement in most countries of the region. Changes in the supplies resulting from imports and exports can in most countries be accurately derived from the foreign trade statistics. The situation is less satisfactory in regard to changes in stocks: in most countries and for most products, only a small part of the stocks held at any time are statistically covered. Knowledge is particularly scarce in regard to the stocks held by producers and by small traders. However, in most countries of the region, the regular collection of statistics on such stocks would not have a high priority. For the purposes of demand forecasting, the method adopted by the Indian Foodgrains Enquiry Committee may have to suffice, i.e. assuming that stock changes cancel each other within a period of a few years, and taking therefore, say, a three year average of the gross available supply as the base figure.

Effects of income growth on demand

There are two basic methods of measuring the effect of changes in incomes on demand. One is what is known as the time series method, using data for a number of years on national averages of *per capita* incomes and *per capita* consumption of the goods being studied. The other is the so called cross-sectional method, based on sample surveys of household budgets showing family income and itemized expenditure, numbers of family members and so on.

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[31] For a more comprehensive discussion on the subject of statistical priorities, see ECAFE document "Basic Statistics for Economic and Social Development in the ECAFE Region" (E/CN.11/ASTAT/Conf. 2/L.2).

[32] Values indicating disposable incomes or consumption expenditure are most useful, but their estimation depends upon the availability of more complete data.

Unfortunately, postwar time series of consumption statistics are unsuited for the present purpose owing to shortages, rationing, and price and other controls which have interfered with the free choice of the consumers. As new data for time series will take a long time to accumulate and may suffer from similar defects, reliance will, for the time being, have to be placed mainly on sample surveys of family incomes and expenditures.

Family budget surveys of limited coverage have been conducted in most countries of the ECAFE region, mainly in connexion with the construction of urban cost of living indexes. Some useful information can be derived from such data. Ideally, however, what is required for the present purpose is nationwide surveys covering both urban and rural areas, and possessing certain specific features.[33] It would appear that the importance of such enquiries is being increasingly recognized. As was mentioned earlier, Japan and India have already for some time carried out recurrent sample surveys of household finances, and a non-recurrent survey was conducted in Ceylon in 1953.[34] A recurrent sample survey of households on a nationwide scale has been initiated in the Philippines,[35] and more recently the Government of Pakistan established a National Sample Survey Organization. Among its first tasks will be the conduct of a family expenditure survey in rural areas, designed to complement surveys already made in urban areas.[36] As such surveys yield much useful information for other purposes as well, their inclusion in the priority list of other governments, too, merits consideration.

In the case of main staple foods, such as cereals, the results obtained from one country's statistics may have some relevance for other countries of reasonably similar conditions as regards income levels and food habits. But for most other foods, as well as for other consumption items such as textiles, consumption habits and preferences are likely to differ from country to country, and it would be dangerous to draw conclusions on the basis of analogies.

Consumption on the farms and marketed surpluses

In countries where agricultural production is organized mainly on a subsistence basis, it is important to distinguish between total production of food crops and the quantity sold for consumption off farms. It is only the latter quantity—the marketed surplus—which is available to meet the demand of the non-agricultural sectors of the population. Studies and projections of supply and demand for foodgrains which neglect this distinction may be seriously misleading. The statistics of marketed surpluses of foodgrains are however meagre and unreliable for most countries of the region. As a result, there is a lack of information on the effects of changes in output, incomes and prices on the producers' decisions regarding quantities consumed and sold. This is a handicap in the preparation of projections of the demand and supply of foodgrains.

The difficulties in the way of obtaining reliable statistics of marketed supplies are very great. However, some useful data might become available as a by.product of the state purchase of farm products and the operations of co-operatives or regulated markets. Annual sample surveys of area and the production of various crops may provide an opportunity to collect information on quantities marketed. Recurrent sample surveys of rural households would seem to be the best means of obtaining basic information for the study of the effects of changes in incomes on production, home consumption and marketings of food crops.

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[33] See ECAFE document (STAT/Conf.5/1) "On Measurement of Price and Income Elasticities of the Demand for Rice and other Cereals in the ECAFE Region," (Bangkok, 1956) and the Report of the third session of the working Party on Economic Development and Planning (United Nations, *Economic Bulletin for Asia and Far East,* November 1957).

[34] Department of Economic Research, Central Bank of Ceylon, *Survey of Ceylon's Consumer Finances* (Colombo, 1953).

[35] The Philippine Statistical Survey of Households (PSSH).

[36] *Pakistan News Digest,* 1 August 1958, p.4.

III. IMPLICATIONS FOR NATIONAL PLANS OF OTHER COUNTRIES' DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES AND POLICIES

1. The case of rice

Attention has been drawn on several occasions[37] to the importance for countries planning their economic development of exchanging information regarding their goals of production and of foreign trade, and of assessing the effects of other countries' programmes on their national development plans. Such an assessment is particularly important in planning the production of goods which are traded intraregionally, since pursuance of conflicting goals might lead to the emergence of surpluses in the international markets, falling prices, and other undesirable effects on the national economies concerned.

The implications for national plans of other countries' development programmes can best be studied in terms of individual commodities. In Asia, rice provides a good starting point for such studies. Only a small proportion of the world's rice enters international markets (in 1957 and 1958 less than 6 million tons out of a total production of nearly 150 million tons milled rice). Yet this fraction is of considerable significance in Asia and the Far East, where most of it moves; certain countries of the region depend on rice exports for much of their foreign exchange earnings and government revenue, while for many others the import of rice forms a considerable item in their trade balance.

During much of the postwar period, a seller's market has tended to prevail for rice, and the rice prices have remained high relative to most other grains. This has caused rice importing countries to increase their domestic rice production and to plan for even larger expansion, while turning also to imports of wheat to some extent as a cheaper grain. Exporting countries, on the other hand, are anxious to increase their foreign exchange earnings, and are implementing extensive development schemes to increase their production and exports of rice.

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[37] See for instance "Report of the Working Party on Economic Development and Planning (third session)" in United Nations, *Economic Bulletin for Asia and the Far East* (November 1957), p.8; "Report of the Committee on Industry and Natural Resources (eleventh session)" para. 42 and 47 (ECAFE document E/CN.11/499, 24 Feb. 1959); "Report of the sixteenth session of the Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East", Part I, para. 261 and 262 and Part II, resolution on economic co-operation in Asia (ECAFE document ECAFE/54 Rev. 1, 21 March 1960); and FAO, "Report of the Fourth FAO Regional Conference for Asia and the Far East" (Tokyo, October 1958), pp.27 and 32 (document FAO/58/11/8722).

It would be of great value to the governments of the region to know the likely effect on the international rice market of these potentially opposing tendencies. Although forecasts would not necessarily lead to adjustments in the production plans, they would help to clarify the expectations. For instance, the emergence of a surplus in international markets leading to a marked fall in rice prices might render uneconomic much of the increased production in some importing countries. The difficulties of forecasting are, however, considerable even under the best of conditions, and particularly so in this region where the statistical data have many limitations. In the final analysis, each country must draw its own conclusions from the facts and "educated estimates" that are available or can be made.

One estimate of the prospective situation is given below. It is based on national development plans where available—otherwise on the continuation of past and present trends, helped out by arbitrary assumptions where data are lacking. It is thus not a definitive forecast. Rather, it is an illustration of the type of analysis that the individual countries of the region are likely to find useful. Improved projections are in preparation by FAO for its Consultative Sub-committee on Economic Aspects of Rice.

Many of the development plans currently followed in the region end around 1960/61, and the next series of plans cover a period ending around 1965/66. The latter year has, therefore, been taken as the year to which the present projections should relate. However, plans covering the early part of the nineteen-sixties or the provisional outlines thereof are at present available for only a few countries.

2. Prospects of rice production

Table 5 shows rice production targets for the mid-1960's in five countries of the ECAFE region, and table 6 presents projections of rice production in 1965/66 for eight other countries of the region. Chart I shows graphically the trends of rice production in all these countries since 1948/49, together with projections for 1965/66.

Table 5

FIVE ECAFE COUNTRIES: RICE PRODUCTION TARGETS FOR THE MID-1960'S

Country	Year		Production (1,000 tons of milled rice)			Percentage increase (Target/Base)	Average annual rate of increase over the base year (%)
	Base (1)	Target (2)	Base (3)	Target (4)	1965/66[a] (5)	(6)	(7)
Ceylon	1957	1968	447	1,092	910	144	13.1
China (Taiwan)	1960	1964	1,785[b]	1,988	1,990[c]	11	2.8
India	1958/59	1965/66	30,349	41,270[d]	41,270[d]	36	5.1
Korea, southern	1959	1964	2,516	2,988	3,080	19	3.8
Pakistan	1959/60	1964/65	8,474[e]	10,327	10,700	22	4.4

Source: Ceylon: National Planning Council, *The Ten-Year Plan* (Colombo, 1959);

China (Taiwan): Ministry of Economic Affairs, "Highlights of the Draft Third Four-Year Agricultural Development Plan" (December 1959);

Korea, southern: Communication from the Government;

Pakistan: Planning Commission, *Outline of the Second Five-Year Plan* (Karachi, January 1960).

[a] Interpolated or extrapolated.

[b] The original 1960 goal.

[c] Rounding of the 1964 production target proposed for the Third Four-Year Plan (1961-1964). In view of the recent reduction of the base year goal, it is assumed that the 1964 target will be achieved only in 1965.

[d] Based on the assumption that rice would increase by the same 36 per cent over 1958/59 as does the production target for all foodgrains proposed for the third five-year plan (1961/62—1965/66) which is being formulated.

[e] Preliminary estimate used as the basis of the plan.

Table 6

EIGHT ECAFE COUNTRIES: PROJECTIONS OF RICE PRODUCTION IN 1965/66

(1,000 tons of milled rice)

Country	*1956/57-1958/59 average*[a] *(1)*	*1965/66* *Projection based on continuation of past trend*[b] *(2)*	*1965/66* *Arbitrary projection* *(3)*
Burma	3,962	4.820	
Cambodia	856	820[c]	1,020[d]
Federation of Malaya . .	506	590	
Indonesia	6,926	8,520[e]	
Japan	10,549	11.600[f]	
Philippines	2,182	2,740	
Thailand	4,568	4,760	5,520[g]
Viet-Nam, southern . .	2,262	3,510[h]	3.120[i]

[a] Based on FAO statistics. For conversion factors from paddy to milled rice, see the note to table 2 on page 6 above.

[b] Figures are obtained by extending the respective straight trend lines of production covering, unless otherwise indicated, 12 years (1948/49 - 1959/60).

[c] A straight trend line of production based on 1949/50 - 1959/60 is used.

[d] Based on the assumption that production would reach a level equal to the product which is obtained by multiplying the postwar peak area under rice (1,260,000 hectares in 1957/58) by the postwar peak yield per hectare (809 kilogrammes in 1953/54).

[e] A straight trend line of production based on 1950/51 - 1959/60 is used.

[f] Based on the prewar and postwar trend line of yield per hectare and the annual net increase of about 5,000 hectares in the area under rice, both of which have formed the basis of calculations in the regular projection of rice production for 1969 as referred to on page 14. Since, owing to a change in statistical coverage, published production figures up to 1954 are not comparable with those for the later years, no trend line of output for 1948 - 1959 is drawn in chart 1.

[g] Based on the output which would meet increasing domestic requirements while maintaining the present level of exports.

[h] A straight trend line of production over the period of 1951/52 - 1959/60 is used.

[i] Based on the assumption that the rate of increase in output would be about three-fourths of that achieved during 1951/52 - 1959/60.

In these projections, three approaches were adopted. First, where countries have set or are discussing official production targets for the mid-1960's, use was made of projections based on national plan targets, with some qualifications (colume 5 of table 5). Such was the case with Ceylon, China (Taiwan), India, southern Korea and Pakistan. For other countries, a second approach was adopted, i.e. to study the past trends during nine to twelve or more years ending 1959/60 and to project trend lines to 1965/66 (column 2 of table 6). However, there are cases to which neither the first nor the second approach seems applicable, since no official plan target has been set and yet projection of the past trend gives a manifestly unsatisfactory result. In such cases arbitrary estimates of the 1965/66 production have been made (column 3 of table 6), taking into account all the information available on past trends and the measures under consideration by governments.

Ceylon's figure in column 5 of table 5 has been interpolated from the ten-year plan (1959-1968) which called for a 144 per cent increase in rice production over 1957.

In the course of the formulation of its third four-year plan (1961-1964), China (Taiwan) is now contemplating setting the rice production target in 1964 at 2,280,000 tons in terms of brown rice (or 1,988,000 tons, milled basis), which is 11 per cent larger than the 1960 goal of 2,050,000 tons. In view of the fact that, owing to flood damage suffered in 1959, the 1960 goal has recently been reduced by 50,000 tons to the same level as the 1959 goal, it is assumed that the 1964 target will be achieved only in 1965.

As mentioned earlier, self-sufficiency in staple food is the main objective of the agricultural part of the plans in both India and Pakistan. India's third five-year plan (1961/62-1965/66) now under preparation seems likely to envisage a 36 per cent increase in foodgrains production from 73.5 million long tons in 1958/59 to about 100 million long tons in 1965/66.[38] Although the rice production target has not yet been disclosed separately, it may amount to approximately 41,270,000 metric tons, on the assumption that rice output will also increase by 36 per cent during 1958/59—1965/66. In Pakistan's second five-year plan, the rice production target in 1964/65 has been set at 10,327,000 tons, or 22 per cent above the preliminary estimate for 1959/60 of 8,474,000 tons. This rate has been extended to 1965/66, giving a figure of 10,700,000 tons.

For southern Korea, the figure in column 5 of table 5 has been extrapolated from the five year agricultural programme for 1960-1964, which envisages a 19 per cent increase in rice production over 1959.

Among the remaining countries, the results obtained from projections based on the continuation of past trends appear to be more or less applicable to five countries, namely Burma, the Federation of Malaya, Indonesia, Japan and Philippines. Violent ups and downs in rice production during the last decade in Cambodia and Thailand make it impracticable to rely on the past trend lines for the purpose of projection. An entirely arbitrary estimate has been attempted in regard to Cambodia, by multiplying the postwar peak area under rice by the postwar peak yield per hectare. In the case of Thailand, the estimate for 1965/66 is based on the output which would be able to meet increasing domestic requirements while maintaining the present level of exports. In the case of southern Viet-Nam, recovery of rice production in recent years has been quite rapid. However, as this tempo may not be maintained for years to come, it has been assumed that the rate of increase in output would be about three-fourth of that achieved during 1951/52—1959/60.

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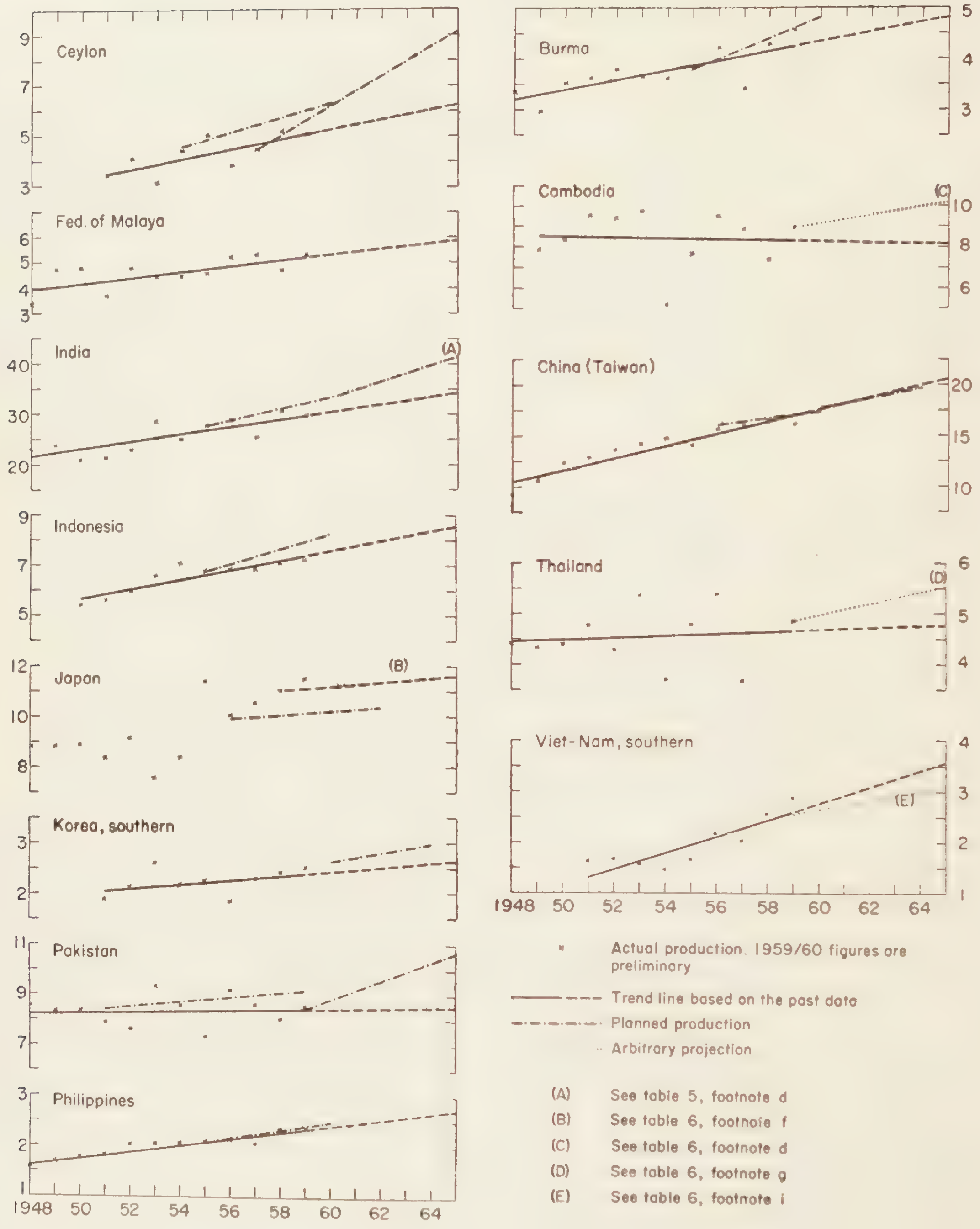
[38] *Commerce,* 13 February 1960, p.238.

Chart 1. ECAFE Countries: Trends and Prospects of Rice Production, 1948/49 — 1965/66

(Million metric tons in terms of milled rice)



The projections so far described, which are very rough for a number of countries, may neverthelees serve to give a forward look at the developments of rice production in the countries of the region.

3. Projections of domestic demand for rice

Table 7 shows the estimated domestic demand for rice in 1966, together with basic factors used in making such projections in fifteen countries of the region.

For Ceylon, China (Taiwan), India and Pakistan, the demand targets envisaged or likely to be envisaged in the plan have been used in estimating prospective demand in 1966. For the last-named two countries, they are regarded as the same as the production targets for 1965/66.

For the remaining eleven countries, projections have been made on the basis of estimated annual rates of population growth, assumed annual rates of increment in *per capita* real incomes and calculated or assumed income elasticities of demand for rice. No allowance was made for relative increase in non-food use (industrial and feed) of rice except in the case of Japan, nor were any assumptions made about changes in relative prices of rice and other grains.

For nine of these eleven countries, the rates of population growth used are taken from a recent United Nations study on population trend.[39] In the case of the remaining three countries or territories, namely Hong Kong, Japan and southern Korea, either estimated rates likely to obtain during the forthcoming several years or actual rates prevailing in the last several years have been used.[40]

Regarding estimated rates of increment of *per capita* real income over the forthcoming period, two different assumptions have been made in the case of Japan. For some other countries, due account has been taken of actual rates in the past several years or of the rates envisaged in the plans about to terminate; however, in certain cases, such as southern Korea and Thailand, somewhat lower rates have been used.[40] In default of any other information, the rates of income increment in the Federation of Malaya and Singapore were assumed to be 2 per cent a year, 1.5 per cent a year in southern Viet-Nam, and one per cent a year in Cambodia.

Calculations of income elasticity of demand for rice or cereals are available in the region only for four countries. i.e. Ceylon, China (Taiwan),[41] India and Japan. On the basis of evidence for India and Ceylon, an income elasticity of demand of + 0.5 was used for Indonesia. For the Federation of Malaya, Hong Kong and Singapore, where the levels of *per capita* incomes are relatively high, hypothetical income elasticity of demand of + 0.25 was used merely on the ground that

Table 7

FIFTEEN ECAFE COUNTRIES: PROJECTIONS OF DOMESTIC REQUIREMENTS OF RICE[a] IN 1966

Country	*Gross available supply of rice 1957 1959 average*[b] (1)	*Estimated annual rate of population growth 1960-1966*[c] (2)	*Assumed annual rate of growth in per capita real incomes 1960-1966*[d] (3)	*Estimated domestic requirements of rice in 1966*[e] (4)
	1,000 tons	%	%	*1,000 tons*
Importing countries				
Ceylon	958	2.8	2.9[f]	1,380[g]
Federation of Malaya	856	3.2	2.0	1,140
Hong Kong	329	4.1[h]	2.7[i]	480
India	28,690	2.2	2.8-3.8[j]	41,270[k]
Indonesia	7,632	2.0	1.0[m]	9,300
Japan	11,076[n]	0.7[p]	a) 6.5[p]	a) 11,470
			b) 3.3[p]	b) 11,570
Korea, southern	2,239	1.8[q]	3.0[r]	2,730
Pakistan	8,991	1.8[s]	2.0[s]	10,700[k]
Philippines	2,288	3.0	2.0[t]	3,010
Singapore	143	3.3	2.0	190
Exporting countries				
Burma	2,347	1.8	2.0[u]	2,810
Cambodia	670	2.7	1.0	840
China (Taiwan)	1,447	3.4	3.5[v]	1,850[w]
Thailand	3,311	2.7	2.0[x]	4,250
Viet-Nam, southern	2,076	2.2	1.5	2,540

[a] In terms of milled rice.

[b] 1956/57-1958/59 average production plus average net imports or minus average net exports of 1957-1959, for which all the data are from FAO sources. Changes in stocks are ignored.

[c] Unless otherwise indicated, figures are derived from United Nations, *Economic Bulletin for Asia and the Far East,* Vol.X, No.1 (June 1959), page 24, table 19, column 4.

[d] Unless otherwise indicated, figures given are hypothetical.

[e] Unless otherwise indicated, based on figures in columns (1) (2) and (3).

[f] The rate envisaged in the ten-year plan.

[g] Interpolated from the demand target for 1968 envisaged in the ten-year plan.

[h] Actual rate during 1953-1959.

[i] The actual rate estimated by E.F. Szczepanik over a period of 1949/50-1956/57. See his article "Hong Kong's National Income", *Far Eastern Economic Review,* (24 December 1959) pp.1,004-1,005.

[j] The rate proposed for use in the third five-year plan.

[k] The same as the probable production target given in column 5 of table 5.

[m] This is equal to the annual rate envisaged in the five-year-plan (1956-60).

[n] 1958 only.

[p] Figures used in the tentative estimate for 1969 as referred to on page 14.

[q] Actual annual rate during 1955-1959 was 1.5 per cent.

[r] Judging from index numbers of *per capita* gross product at constant prices given in United Nations *Statistical Yearbook 1958,* the annual rate during 1953-1957 was approximately 4.0 per cent.

[s] The annual rate envisaged in the second five-year plan (1960-1964).

[t] The annual rate envisaged in the Three-Year Programme of Economic and Social Development (1959/60-1961/62).

[u] The annual rate during 1947/48-1958/59 was approximately 2.0 per cent (*Economic Survey of Burma, 1959,* p.5).

[v] The annual rate envisaged in the Second Four-Year Plan (1957-1960) was 3.9 per cent.

[w] Extrapolated on the basis of domestic demand target of 1,794,000 tons for 1964/65 proposed for the third four-year plan.

[x] According to the Report of a Mission organized by International Bank for Reconstruction and Development *(A Public Development Programme for Thailand,* Statistical appendix), the annual rate during 1952-1957 seems to have been about 2.8 per cent.

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[39] "Population Trends and Related Problems of Economic Development in the ECAFE Region", *Economic Bulletin for Asia and the Far East* (June 1959), table 19.

[40] For details, see footnotes to table 7.

[41] Lee, T.H., "Statistical Measurement of Income Elasticities of Demand for Major Farm Products in Taiwan", JCRR, March 1959. The value of income elasticity of demand for rice arrived at was + 0.0644.

it might be justified by the evidence for higher income groups in urban India. With regard to two self-sufficient countries (southern Korea and Philippines) with moderately high levels of rice consumption, as well as four exporting countries (Burma, Cambodia, Thailand and southern Viet-Nam) where the levels of estimated *per capita* supply of rice available for domestic consumption are high, the same value of + 0.25 was used as an income elasticity coefficient in default of any other information. It may be noted that differences in these coefficients over the range mentioned in this paragraph would not greatly affect the magnitude of the results given in table 7.

The basic data available for demand projections are thus very limited, and the methods of estimation necssarily rough. Better data are not at present available.

4. Implications of projected demand and production for foreign trade in rice

Table 8 shows, in addition to the estimates of rice production in 1965/66 and the estimated domestic demand for rice in 1966 which have been arrived at in the preceding three tables, the actual net imports or exports of rice in 1957-1959 (annual average) and projected import requirements or exportable surpluses for 1966 in fifteen countries of the ECAFE region, corresponding to the calculations presented in these tables.

The table indicates that, according to the assumptions and calculations made for the countries shown, the rice import requirements of the Federation of Malaya, Hong Kong, Indonesia, Philippines and Singapore would be larger in 1966 than they were on the average in 1957-1959, while those of Ceylon would be somewhat less. Japan and southern Korea would achieve self-sufficiency and even have an exportable surplus, although in consideration of its trade relations with traditional rice exporting countries, it seems very doubtful whether Japan would be able to cease rice imports altogether in six years' time. If their national production targets were actually achieved, India and Pakistan would attain self-sufficiency in rice, with the result that a total of some 860,000 tons of rice imported into these two countries in the 1957-1959 annual average would not be needed by them in 1966.

Table 8.

FIFTEEN ECAFE COUNTRIES: PROSPECTIVE PRODUCTION, DOMESTIC REQUIREMENTS AND IMPORT REQUIREMENTS OR EXPORTABLE SURPLUSES OF RICE IN 1966

(In 1,000 tons of milled rice)

Country	*Estimated domestic requirements in 1966*[a] *(1)*	*Estimated production in 1965 or 1965/66*[b] *(2)*	*Net import requirements of importing countries or net exportable surpluses of exporting countries*		
			1957-1959 average[c] *(3)*	*1966 projected*[d] *(4)*	*Change + or — (5)*
Importing countries:					
Ceylon	1,380	910	509	470	— 39
Federation of Malaya	1,140	590	350	550	+ 200
Hong Kong	480	20[e]	310	460	+ 150
India	41,270	41,270	499	0	— 499
Indonesia	9,300	8,520	705	780	+ 75
Japan	11,,520[f]	11,600	378	— 80	— 458
Korea, southern	2,730	3,080	57	— 350	— 407
Pakistan	10,700	10,700	360	0	— 360
Philippines	3,010	2,740	106	270	+ 164
Singapore	190	—	143	190	+ 47
Total of the above countries . .	81,720	79,430	3,417	2,290	— 1,127
Exporting countries:					
Burma	2,810	4,820	1,615	2,010	+ 395
Cambodia	840	1,020	186	180	— 6
China (Taiwan)	1,850	1,990	156	140	— 16
Thailand	4,250	5,520	1,257	1,270	+ 13
Viet-Nam, southern	2,540	3,120	186	580	+ 394
Total of the above countries . .	12,290	16,470	3,400	4,180	+ 780

[a] Figures are taken from table 7.

[b] Figures are taken from tables 5 and 6.

[c] Net imports or net exports.

[d] Difference between columns (1) and (2).

[e] Rough estimate of possible production. Local production in Hong Kong is strictly limited by availability of land, and covers only a fraction of the total demand.

[f] The average of the two figures based on different rates of *per capita* income growth which are given in table 7.

The combined import requirements in 1966 of the ten countries shown in the table would be approximately 2.3 million tons, or 1.1 million tons below the actual net annual imports of the same ten countries on the average in 1957-1959.

Among the five rice exporting countries shown in the table, the exportable surplus of rice in Burma and southern Viet-Nam would increase substantially. Owing to increased domestic demand, exportable surpluses would be almost unchanged in Cambodia, China (Taiwan) and Thailand. On the basis of present trends and the assumption here made, the combined exportable surpluses in 1966 of all these five countries would be approximately 0.8 million tons above their actual net exports of 3.4 million tons annual average in 1957-1959.

In considering these tables, the reader must bear in mind the following points:

(i) The projections are not forecasts. They represent an attempt to indicate the direction in which certain present development plans and trends—insofar as they are known—are heading. They are purely an illustrative exercise in this type of analysis. Manifestly, any country which is planning to invest vast sums in rice production will have to make this kind of analysis for itself, on the best information available to it, as an important part of its economic development planning process.

(ii) If these projections were to hold true, it might be concluded that the exporting countries would need to expand greatly their sales to countries outside the ECAFE region. Such sales already constitute an outlet for about 700,000 tons, or one-fifth of their total exports (1957-1958 average).

(iii) The ten importing countries shown have in recent years obtained no less than one quarter of their requirements (850,000 tons—1,050,000 tons annually) from mainland China and non-Asian sources. If their import requirements were to decrease, it would affect more severely non-Asian exporters, whose exports tend to play a supplementary role.

(iv) The above conclusion rests largely on the assumption that certain countries, e.g. Ceylon, India and Pakistan, will be successful in achieving their production targets for the mid-1960's. If the assumption were made that these three countries would achieve only, say, three-fourths of the planned rate of increase in rice production; their total import requirements in 1966 would increase by about 2.5 million tons, instead of declining by 900,000 tons, as compared with the 1957-1959 annual average. However, a sizable part of this gap might be filled by other exporting countries not considered here, such as mainland China, the United States or the United Arab Republic.

(v) No account has been taken of the fact that wheat is available to the countries of the region at relatively low prices or on special terms not involving foreign exchange cost. This situation might continue for a number of years and result in some further diversion of imports from rice to wheat, especially in case of failures by India and Pakistan to accomplish their plan production targets for rice. On the other hand, if developments were to result in a marked fall in rice prices relative to wheat, the diversion of import demand to wheat might be slowed down or halted.

MODERNIZATION OF SMALL INDUSTRIES IN ASIA

With special reference to the problems and techniques of mechanization[42]

I. INTRODUCTION

Both the terms "small industries" and "mechanization" may need clarification. "Small industries" are defined in the countries of the region in accordance with the respective statistical classifications and administrative requirements. They are usually classified in terms of the number of workers employed or amount of capital invested, with or without any additional criteria such as use of motive power or not, location of activities in the home or workshops. Obviously, the technological problems of these industries cannot be fitted into the categories provided by these quantitative criteria. For the purpose of this paper, suffice it to say that small industries consist of the traditional types of household or cottage industries as well as the modern types of workshops and decentralized small factories. The characteristics of these industries are: (1) lack of specialization in management and labour, (2) close personal contact of owners or managers with workers, customers, and suppliers, (3) lack of access to capital market and (4) weakness in bargaining strength in both purchases and sales. These functional differences are the real basis of a separate approach to small industries.

The term "mechanization" as used in this paper does not mean in all cases the complete abandonment of traditional or old production tools, or the extensive substitution of human labour and skill by modern machinery. Because of economic and other considerations, immediate solutions to the production problems of some small industries in countries of the region often lie not so much in the introduction of entirely new equipment and machinery as in the improvement or fuller utilization of the existing facilities. Furthermore, there are cases where the productive efficiency can be substantially increased simply by improving the manufacturing procedures (e.g. better plant-layout, better utilization of raw materials and by-products, application of quality control at various stages of production) with little or no change in equipment. For the purpose of this paper, the term "mechanization" has therefore been broadly conceived to cover all aspects of improvement in both equipment and process.

II. PRINCIPLES AND POLICIES

Productivity and employment are the two basic considerations which underlie small industry development policy in countries of this region. In the short run, these two considerations may clash. Thus, the manner and extent of mechanization of small industries will have to be viewed from a broad economic and social perspective. In order to formulate a set of guiding principles for the construction of an effective programme, three major policy questions need to be considered. They are: the potential contributions of small industry to a newly industrializing economy, the choice between protective and development approaches, and the justifucation of and scope for mechanization.

Potential Contribution of Small Industry to a Newly Industrializing Economy

In any assesment of the potential contribution of small industry to an industrializing economy, a clear distinction should be made between the *traditional* types of household or cottage industries and the *modern* types of workshops and decentralized small factories. The former are the oldest form of manufacture, and are carried on in or near home mainly by family labour. At the present stage of development, they are important, particularly to the rural areas in countries of the region as a means of supplementing the incomes of agricultural workers and of relieving unemployment or underemployment. This consideration weighs heavily with governments in the region.

However, as industrial development advances, the utility of the traditional type of household or cottage industries in the economy will be limited, for it is a relatively inefficient method of production and is also subject to abuse in the form of extremely low earnings, long hours and sometimes child labour. On the demand side, there has been a steady decline in most countries in the market for a wide range of products traditionally supplied by the sector and now being replaced either by imported goods or by improved products manufactured by domestic large-and medium-scale industries as well as modern small factories. Thus, it is generally considered that the potential contribution of traditional crafts to an industrializing economy can only be enhanced by helping the craftsmen adapt their skills to meet the rising modern-type demands.[43] In fact, a tentative suggestion has been advanced on the basis of recent studies that newly industrializing countries might do well to regard their household or cottage industries as transitional form, to be supplanted in most cases by geographically decentralized small factories and workshops.[44] Admittedly, given the limited resources of capital and technical personnel available and the pressing problems of unemployment in most ECAFE countries, such a transformation of the traditional craft sectors will have to proceed by stages. Nevertheless, this important aspect must be taken into account at a very early stage in devising any small industry development policy in order to lay the basis for a rationalized overall programme of industrialization.

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[42] Revised version of the working paper E/CN.11/I&T/L.15 prepared for the twelfth session of the Committee on Industry and Natural Resources by the Industry and Trade Division of the ECAFE secretariat.

[43] Makers of earthenware utensils, for example, could learn to manufacture bricks and titles; village blacksmiths to repair farm implements and machines; weavers and other handicraft workers could concentrate on designs and qualities not suitable for large-scale production.

In terms of the potential contribution to a developing economy, the spread of modern workshops and decentralized small factories offers the best prospects, and deserves priority. Even in the highly industrialized countries, small industries of these types are making an important contribution to output and employment. Certain economic advantages of the small-scale sector—such as proximity of market and materials, individual attention to designs and varieties, flexibility in management and production, and low overhead costs—have enabled them to continue to compete successfully with large-scale concerns. These factors which favour the economic efficiency of small manufacturing units in certain industrialized countries probably apply with still greater force in a newly industrializing economy.

First, because of the lack of adequate transportation facilities in most under-developed but industrializing countries, the scattered small markets often confer real economic advantages to small manufacturing units. Second, the development of small establishments, too, helps countries to tap some resources which would otherwise remain idle. This possibility applies to the mobilization of savings from small industrialists and their relatives or friends, the utilization of indigenous raw materials in rural and remote areas, and the employment of part-time or off-season labour. Third, as capital is scarce in newly developing countries, a proper division of work between large and small-scale sectors is sometimes desirable. As the developmental experience in mainland China and India shows, most of the small-scale industries, requiring smaller capital investment, can be mobilized to produce a wide range of consumer and capital goods (farm implements and simple machines), thus leaving the large-scale sector to emphasize basic industries. Fourth, it is often uneconomic for large industrial enterprises to try to be "self-sufficient" by producing "short-run" non-standard parts and components. Some of the repair and auxiliary services can be provided effectively by small units at lower costs. This form of integrated development of the large and small sectors will become increasingly important as industrial development gathers speed. Fifth, the growth of decentralized modern small industries can play an important role in developing backward areas and in removing the regional disparity in national development. Finally, modern small industries can perform an important function as pilot plants and as a training ground for developing entrepreneurship and skilled manpower which are among the scarce factors of production in practically all newly developing countries.

In recognition of these potential contributions of small industry, most countries in the region have now accorded a high priority to the development of this sector. It has also been generally recognized that, to build up a dynamic and modern small industries sector, government action is needed in order to remove some well-known difficulties, such as weakness in organization, lack of access to the capital market, and backwardness in production methods.

Choice Between Protective and Developmental Approaches

In formulating a programme for the development of small industries, governments are generally faced with two basic considerations. On the one hand, certain types of small industries (particularly traditional crafts) may need appropriate protection against competition from large-scale manufacturing until they are economically self-supporting or until new employment opportunities have been created as development takes place, so that the craftsmen in the declining trades can be gradually shifted to other occupations. On the other hand, such a protective approach may call for the imposition of certain restrictions on the expansinon and modernization of the related large and medium-scale industries. It may thus hold up the over-all industrial advance, or, at least in the short run slow down the rate of increase of the total national product. It is further argued that solutions of the employment problems in the less-developed countries may be helped not so much by the protection of the declining household or cottage industries as by the use of labour-intensive methods in other sectors, such as construction and services. These arguments lead to the belief that, in the interest of national development as a whole, small industry policy should aim at the adoption of the improved techniques which will yield higher production and quality and in turn higher incomes and employment.

By and large, small industry development policies in countries of the region are being oriented in this direction. In India, for example, a number of protective schemes are still in force in the form of reservation of spheres, pegging down of production and levy of a cess on large scale industry for the development of the small-scale sector. But these schemes are conceived only as a temporary measure. Meanwhile, a comprehensive development programme has been introduced to improve the management and productive efficiency of small industries. All organizations, including those charged with the promotion of traditional crafts such as the All India Handicraft Board and the Khadi and Village Industries Commission, have invariably considered as vital the introduction of better techniques and improved equipment. In one of its recent reports, the Board stated that it "is not content merely with providing safeguards, it has now a programme of providing positive measures of help by organizing co-operatives of artisans, by setting up housing colonies, giving designs, loans and raw materials".[45]

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[44] Eugene Stanley, *Small Industry Development*, Research Programme on Small Industry Development, Stanford Research Institute, California, USA (December 1958), page 4.

[45] *Report on Work of the All India Handicraft Board*, 1956-57, page 10.

Reference may also be made to the experience in Japan where technically the stage of development of small industries is more advanced than that in other countries in the region. However, there are still many difficult issues raised by the relationships between the large and small industries — particulary by the sub-contracting system. Organizationally and financially, a large number of small industries in the country are closely tied up with large manufacturing companies through the sub-contract system. While such a system performs an important function in facilitating the division of work between various sizes of enterprises to their mutual advantage, the benefits of this division accrue in general less to the small enterprises than to the large ones. Depending on the large enterprises for orders and supply of raw materials, small establishments generally have no special bargaining strength, and are often compelled to accept the contracts under very unfavourable conditions such as long term or deferred payments, high raw material cost, and low margin of profit. This leaves small enterprises with little surplus for renewal and modernization of equipment. Thus, in the small industry sector as a whole, a very large proportion of the equipment in use is worn out or obsolete, and a considerable proportion of the machinery purchased is second-hand.[46] The existing disparity in wages and productivity between the large and small enterprises may be further widened unless appropriate measures are taken.

The Government of Japan has accordingly introduced a comprehensive programem aiming at the improvement of the organization, management and productive techniques of the small-scale sectors by providing them with advisory services and credit assistance. The necessary legislation, such as the "Law for the Prevention of Delayed Payments to Sub-contractors", was enacted in order to promote better working relationships between the small and large-scale sectors. At the same time, measures are being considered with a view to checking larger enterprises from encroaching on those sectors of industry where smaller enterprises are best suited from the standpoint of the national economy as a whole.

Experience in both India and Japan seems to indicate that the manner and extent of the application of various protective and developmental measures depend largely on the historical development of the industrial structure and the existing interrelationship between large and small-scale industries. For many other countries in the region which have just embarked on industrialization and where large-scale industries are yet to be established, early attention to the development of a modern and efficient small industry sector may ease the future problems of co-ordination between various sizes of enterprises, and pave the way for the building up of an industrial structure with an optimum combination of large and small units in which the place of each will be determined on the basis of economic efficiency. A forward looking development programme should, therefore, envisage the transformation of old types of small industries as well as the introduction of those of modern types.

Justification of and Scope for Mechanization

In a developmental approach, it is essential to seek improvement in the productive equipment and methods of small industries, some of whose basic difficulties lie in poor quality and high costs of production. These problems can be solved only by technological improvement.

It is also important to relieve the workers' burden and to improve their working conditions. Some of the traditional production methods require strenuous physical effort. In the pottery industry, for example, the preparation of clays and glaze is a most laborious operation. A small power-driven raw materials preparation plant can substantially ease the strain. In other cases, such as leather tanning, saw-milling, varnish and paint manufacturing, hand-made match production and welding, the introduction of improved production facilities and methods is often needed to remove some of the health hazards to which the workers are exposed.

The problem of technological unemployment has been cited as a justification for slowing down the technological innovation of small industries. This problem hinges to a large extent on the prospects of the industries concerned and on the level of mechanization introduced. A well-conceived programme for the mechanization of small industries need not give rise to unemployment. On the contrary, those industries which offer good prospects for development have generally increased the number of their employees shortly after the adoption of improved equipment and methods of production. In India, for example, a recent evaluation of the impact of the machine hire-purchase scheme on production and employment shows that the provision of some Rs 240,000 worth of machines to 113 small enterprises enabled them within a period of approximately one year to increase the value of their average monthly output by Rs 445,000 and the number of workers employed by 770.[47] A similar assessment of the small industry mechanization programme in Indonesia concluded that the operation of such a programme had not reduced employment opportunities.[48]

However, it should be emphasized here that productivity and employment do not necessarily increase in proportion to the rise in the level of mechanization. In fact, unless some of the prerequisites for mechanization are available, such as markets, working capital, raw material supply and managerial and technical skill, any attempt to introduce premature and drastic technological change will inevitably lead to under-utilization of capital equipment as well as of labour.

A rationalized programme for the mechanization of small industries in countries facing a capital shortage and a labour surplus should, therefore, be thought of in terms not merely of the introduction of entirely new machines and techniques but also of the improvement of existing facilities and methods. The best result has often been obtained by a combination of traditional and modern equipment and techniques. For many rural industries, much progress can be achieved with the introduction of relatively simple improved equipment. For example, with very little investment, stone rollers can be replaced by cast-iron sugar-cane crushers, handlooms by locally made semi-automatic looms, traditional potter's wheels by ball-bearing wheels, and wooden oil extractors by hand-powered presses. The quality of the products is thereby greatly improved and the volume of production increased.

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[46] Toyoroku Ando, "Interrelations Between Large and Small Industrial Enterprises in Japan," *United Nations Bulletin on Industrialization and Productivity,* No. 2 (March 1959), page 34.

[47] Information provided by the National Small Industries Corporation, India.

[48] "The Implementation of the Mechanization Programme for Small-Scale Industries", *Ekonomi Dan Keuangan Indonesia,* (February 1957), page 162.

The final investment decisions on modernization and mechanization of small enterprises rest, of course, with the management of such enterprises and the individual enterpreneurs. However, governments in most countries of the region have now begun to guide the pace and type of development in this field by means of their advisory services, marketing and credit assistance programmes and raw material allocation and import control. Thus, a consistent government development policy constitutes the first prerequisite for an orderly transformation of existing small industries into modern ones.

III. PROCESS AND PROBLEMS

At the operational and technical level, measures for promoting the technological advancement of small industries must take full account of the attitude of the entrepreneurs and craftsmen towards modernization. In addition, consideration should be given beforehand to some of the problems relating to management, financing, marketing and raw material supply which are likely to arise following the introduction of improved equipment and techniques.

Process of Mechanization

Conservatism or resistance to change on the part of the owners or craftsmen has frequently been cited as one of the major obstacles to the modernization of cottage and small industries in the less-developed countries. This attitude is often explicable in terms of immediate economic difficulties. Faced with the problems of shrinking market, capital shortage, idle production capacity and a low margin of profit or no profit at all, many small industry owners and craftsmen have naturally adopted a negative attitude towards modernization and mechanization since it requires additional investment. It is true that, in some cases, this type of difficulty may be traceable to a single cause—poor quality of products resulting from inefficient equipment and techniques. But this basic cause cannot always be easily appreciated by the owners of small enterprises without personal guidance or even persuasion. This may explain why the popularization of improved or new equipment and techniques by means of mass demonstration or pilot plants alone has sometimes failed to obtain the desired results.

Field experience also shows that technological improvements in small industries are not easily obtained by mere advice and guidance from government experts. Progress must come from the entrepreneurs themselves. Small owners and craftsmen must be convinced of the economic advantages of modernization, take the initiative, and apply their skill and ingenuity. One of the ways to achieve this objective is to concentrate government assistance initially on selected enterprises or groups of industries which hold the best promise of success with quick results. Once some of these small industry owners or craftsmen have been successful as a result of adopting improved equipment or techniques, their friends, relatives or neighbours in the same trades are likely to follow their example.

The enthusiasm and interest of the owners of small industries and craftsmen in technological advancement can also be aroused by means other than financial incentives. In Japan, for example, the Government has been conducting various contests including one for the selection of model workshops or factories and for the grant of annual awards to those enterprises which have shown the greatest improvement since the initial survey was conducted. In India, the Government has recently set up a Board for Promotion of Small Inventions in order to encourage craftsmen with inventive skill. In mainland China, a nation-wide campaign for technical innovation under the slogan "inventions in every co-operative and every member an inventor" was launched in 1958. Craftsmen who have contributed to the improvement of productive equipment and technique are accorded the highest honours and given the widest publicity through press, radio, exhibitions and other media. It was reported that this campaign formed an important part of a comprehensive programme, aiming at achieving, within two or three years, complete or partial mechanization of about 70 per cent of all the handicraft co-operative workshops in the country.[49]

In view of the large number and great variety of small industries in countries of the region, it is generally beyond the financial and personnel resources of the governments to try to take the modernization of these industries entirely into their own hands. Government financial and technical aid should therefore be directed to stimulating the interest of the owner-managers of small industries and craftsmen in the improvement of technology and organization and not become a substitute for the initiative of entrepreneurs. No governmental programme of assistance can be expected to take root until it has aroused their interest.

Problems Arising from Mechanization

Management: The immediate effect of the introduction of mechanization into a small enterprise is the creation of a series of management problems. With improved equipment and machines, the volume of production generally goes up. Hence, additional working capital as well as markets will have to be found;

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[49] New China News Agency, Press release, Peking, 14 and 24 May 1958. It was also reported that the remaining 30 per cent, including art and crafts co-operatives, would have to depend on hand work for a long time to come, though part of their work could be done by machinery. There are now about 100,000 handicraft co-operatives and co-operative workshops in mainland China with a total membership of over five million.

an adequate supply of raw materials must be ensured; and, in some cases, a change in the division of work among employees and in the wage system may be needed. In addition, increasing attention will have to be given to the problem of maintenance and repair. To deal with these problems efficiently, the manager of the enterprise can no longer rely simply on his memory or on rule of thumb methods to keep track of all the transactions in his business. Some record keeping, including possibly a simple cost accounting system, may be needed in order to enable him to assess the performance of the business and to reach decisions on a more intelligent basis.

Benefit from mechanization will depend largely on the ability of the manager of the enterprise to cope with these abrupt changes in management functions. This may be illustrated from the small industry mechanization programme in Indonesia. There were six small coconut oil firms in Java which were provided under the Government's hire-purchase scheme with the same type and make of machinery, each unit consisting of a slicing machine, a disintegrator, a heating kettle, a pressing machine and a diesel-motor. The raw material (copra) used by the six firms was also the same. Yet the production efficiency, measured in terms of extractive percentage, capacity utilization, and labour productivity, showed a great deal of variation among the firms. It was reported that this variation in performance was accounted for mainly by the difference in managerial skills. Firms which had showed higher production efficiency were in all cases run by owner-managers with better educational and technical background.[50]

Most owner-managers of small industries were originally skilled workers, foremen, sometimes graduates of technical schools; some came from non-industrial occupations such as trade. The changes in management functions brought about by mechanization are often beyond the ability of the owner-managers. This gives rise to several complications in operational policy. First, the provision of equipment and machinery needs to be accompanied by managerial and technical counselling services. Secondly, there appears to be a need for a major effort on the part of the public authorities to promote appropriate management training schemes for small industries. Thirdly, in considering financial assistance to small enterprises for the acquisition of new equipment and machinery, the managerial ability of individual entrepreneurs must be taken into full account.

Working capital: For most small industries, working capital is relatively more important than fixed capital. A recent study of the small industries in Delhi, India, shows that among 13 types of enterprises (totalling 326 units employing from 2 to 19 workers) the ratio of working capital to the total capital requirement ranges from 32 per cent to as high as 80 per cent.[51] Comparable data from other countries are not readily available. It may be safely assumed, however, that the capital structure of small industries in most countries of the region is not far different.

For many small enterprises, it is generally easier to provide enough capital to cover the initial investments or to purchase some new machines than to obtain the necessary working capital to keep them running. As most small industries in countries of the region are operating on a hand-to-mouth basis and possess little or no financial reserves, the adoption of improved equipment or new machines, even if obtained under bank loan or a government hire-purchase plan, usually imposes a heavy financial burden because of the additional working capital needed. Any short-term emergency, caused for example by marketing difficulties, illness or bad debts, may entail the loss of working capital and thereby the interruption of the business. The operational experience of the small industry development programmes in several countries of the region shows that the failure of some enterprises to make full use of the machines provided under the government's hire-purchase schemes was accounted for mainly by the shortage of working capital.

The provision of adequate assistance to small industries in obtaining short-term working capital, therefore, constitutes one of the most important elements of any programme of mechanization. In fact, given proper assistance in working capital, many small industry owners may be able to expand their volume of business immediately, and purchase new tools and machines from increased earnings. Conversely, if assistance is confined to the acquisition of tools and machines, there is little assurance that such equipment will be fully utilized.

Marketing: The supply of newer, better and cheaper goods through improvement of production is, of course, a precondition of any substantial expansion of markets. However, a steady and continuing expansion cannot be automatically assured by the improvement of production alone. Indeed, the marketing problems of small industries will become increasingly pressing and more complex with the introduction of mechanization.

First, in order to keep the equipment and machinery running at the desired level and to lower production costs, there will be a need for a certain degree of planning in the production schedule in relation to market demand. For this purpose, many small industries have to be assisted, in the initial stage, in obtaining orders from all possible sources including the government. A permanent market intelligence service has also to be provided in order to keep them better informed about current market conditions. Secondly, an increase in production requires an expansion of sales outlets in both internal and export markets. In most newly developing countries, there is considerable consumer resistance to locally-manufactured products. A co-ordinated sales campaign including the establishment of sale depots and public emporia, promotion of trade fairs and exhibitions, and the use of mobile sales vans is often needed to extend the market. Increasing attention will have to be given to standardization, quality control, product design, finishing and packing. Lastly, in terms of final product costs, small enterprises face competition with large ones not only in production but also in distribution. Many small industries are dependent on a single merchant or middleman for the sale of their output. Because of their economic weakness, distributors or middlemen are in a position to dictate price and terms of sales. Under these circumstances, any competitive advantages which may be obtained from a reduction in the production cost through the improvement of manufacturing facilities could be easily nullified by a further increase in the profit margin of the middlemen. For this reason, several countries have been encouraging the organization of marketing co-operatives for small producers which would shorten the chain of intermediaries and bring about a more direct marketing link between the producers and the consumers, so that the benefits from improved production accrue to the producers and the consumers.

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[50] "The Mechanization of Small Industries," *Ekonomi Dan Keuangan, Indonesia,* (March 1958).

[51] P. N. Dhar, *Small-Scale Industries in Delhi,* Asia Publishing House, Bombay, India, July 1958, page 39. Percentage ratio between fixed capital (on the basis of replacement cost) and working capital: Flour mills 39:61; printing presses 68:32; trunk manufacture 35:65; leather footwear 53:47; light engineering 64:36; electrical goods 44:56; general engineering 49:51; hosiery 47:53; soap 20:80; foundries 66:34; oil mills 46:54; drugs 51:49; and electroplating 58:42.

For most small industries, the improvement of production will therefore have to go hand in hand with the reform of the existing channels of marketing and distribution. This important aspect of small industry development has been receiving increasing attention from governments in countries of the region. In India, for example, parallel with the establishment of the Small Industries Service Institutes (multiple-purpose institutes of technology) the Government has set up an autonomous Small Industries Corporation which administers a co-ordinated assistance programme concerning both marketing and production. In Pakistan, the Government has organized supply and sales centres in some townships for the provision of raw materials and equipment to craftsmen at cost price, and also to purchase the output at guaranteed prices, if it conforms to certain specifications. In China: Taiwan and the Philippines, marketing and technical aids form an integrated part of the programme for the development of handicraft and cottage industries. The Government to-day is one of the biggest buyers of goods and services. As the role of the state in economic activities is increasing, it will be an even bigger buyer. Hence, it may be possible not only to include small producers among those eligible to make bids for government tenders, but also to give special consideration to the small producers—preferably by linking up the award of the contract with the provision of mechanization and modernization of small industries.

Raw materials: An efficient production process cannot be maintained unless there is assurance of the quality and regularity of raw materials supply. In fact, the transformation of the primitive production methods of many small industries in the region may have to be started with the improvement of raw materials.

The major difficulties currently faced by small enterprises in their raw material problems are poor and uneven quality and sometimes uncertain supply. The poor quality is often due to the defective methods of production of the primary producers or the raw material processing industries. The irregularity of supply is largely the result of poorly organized market and distribution systems.

It is true that large industries face some of the same difficulties in raw materials supply; but small enterprises are usually in a much worse situation. Technically, the latter have neither the qualified personnel nor the laboratory facilities for the necessary testing, grading and inspection services. Organizationally and financially, many small industries are dependent on middlemen for working capital or the direct supply of raw materials, and are therefore not in a position to take advantage of bulk purchase on a wholesale basis. Moreover, middlemen often arbitrarily fix the price charged for the raw materials to the disadvantage of the craftsmen. As a result, small enterprises usually have to pay higher prices for the same quality of materials than those paid by the large manufacturers.

Also, in the event of balance of payment difficulties and import restrictions, large industries are usually given the highest priority in the allocation of foreign exchange and of scarce raw materials. Following the exchange stringency in 1957/1958, many small industries in several countries of the region were not able to obtain some of the imported materials or key components required for their manufacturing process and were compelled to curtail production.

The above analysis points to the need for giving separate attention to small enterprises' raw material problems. Among the measures that may be taken in this connexion are arrangements for bulk purchase through co-operatives or other group bodies and the provision of common facility services for processing, testing, storage, collection and distribution. In addition, priority consideration may have to be given by technological institutes to systematic research on raw materials utilization. An effort should also be made to enforce minimum quality standards for certain raw materials in order to encourage the primary producers to improve their production methods and to eliminate the malpractices of middlemen dealers. Finally, in the allocation of priorities in respect of foreign exchange or scarce raw material, the essential requirements of small enterprises should be fully taken into account. This is specially so in cases where the quantity of certain raw materials (such as dyes for textiles, tanning agents for leather works, special alloys for small engineering workshops) are small and the amounts of foreign exchange involved are insignificant. The rigid and indiscriminate restriction on imports of these items could interrupt the whole production process or seriously affect the quality of the final products.

The Need for Co-ordinated Development

The above discussion of the process and problems of modernization shows that the technological aspects of small industry development cannot be divorced from organizational, financial and marketing problems. All these problems need to be dealt with simultaneously. Isolated or *ad hoc* actions on any of the segmental problems alone or on one factor at a time would not lead to the desired results. Thus, a programme for the modernization of small industries will have to be framed within a plan for the development of these industries as a whole.

The implementation of a co-ordinated programme usually involves many complicated administrative problems. In the central government, the operational problems of a comprehensive small industry development programme will require co-ordinated action by practically all ministries or departments, as small manufacturers are directly affected in one way or another by most government policies in respect of industrial planning, tariff, export and import control, taxation, transport, power supply, raw materials allocation, public stores purchase, community development or similar rural reconstruction schemes.

In addition, as small industries are widely scattered, the role of local governments at the provincial or district levels in promoting the development of these industries is particularly important. In India and Pakistan, for example, the development of small industries falls constitutionally within the purview of state and provincial governments. However, in most countries of the region, many local governments are not yet in a position, financially and technically, to cope with these development problems effectively. Thus, assistance from the central government, at least in the initial stage, may be essential.

This consideration points to the need for a central administrative agency to plan, supervise and co-ordinate the development programme. Such an agency need not, however, carry out all the specific kinds of action itself. Its main function is to lay down the pattern of development and to see to it that all aspects of the development programem are being attended to by the operating organizations concerned. To be effective, such an agency should, wherever possible, function separately and be entrusted with the task of promoting small industry development, and nothing else. Experience shows that, more often than not, when an agency is charged with the development of both large and small industries, the problems of the latter tend to be pushed to the background, if not entirely neglected. While the establishment of such an agency at the operational level is desirable, there should also be close co-ordination of development between the large and small-scale sectors at the policy level.

Aside from mainland China, India and Japan are the two countries in the region where a comprehensive programme for small industry development is now in full operation. In India, for the co-ordination of such a programme, the government set up a Small-Scale Industries Board in 1954, with representaives of the State Governments, Ministries of the Central Government and non-officials. A Development Commissioner was appointed to be responsible for the implementation of the decisions of the Board and to supervise and co-ordinate the activities of the Small Industries Service Institutes, extension centres and the National Small Industries Corporation. In addition, separate boards have been set up to co-ordinate the assistance programme for specific industries, such as handloom, handicraft, silk and coir, khadi and village industries. In Japan, the task of over-all co-ordination is entrusted to the Smaller Enterprise Agency of the Ministry of International Trade and Industry (MITI). The Agency maintains close liaison with the Ministries of Agriculture and Forestry, Transportation, Construction, Finance and the Fair Trade Commission in all matters connected with small enterprises. The development policies and measures devised by the Agency are carried out through the local Bureau of MITI and the prefectural and municipal governments. Pakistan has taken steps to organize three autonomous Regional Small Industries Corporations for the administration of the Government's programme. The desirability of setting up similar small industry corporations was also emphasized in the newly formulated ten-year plan of Ceylon.

IV. METHODS AND TECHNIQUES

Economic Investigation and Development Priority

While much emphasis has so far been placed on the need for co-ordinated development, governments need not try to modernize simultaneously all types of small industries in the country. In general, the financial and personnel resources are indequate, and it takes several years to build up even a modest scale of small industries service. Moreover, in a programme of mechanization, caution is necessary to guard against initial failures. What is required is a concentration of resources in time and space in a concerted effort directed at some selected industries or areas.

In order to lay down a programem of priorities and to avoid any wasteful competition either between the small and large-scale industries or between the small-scale units themselves, some basic analysis and assessment of resources and development prospects either on an industry-wise or area basis will be required. Such investigation and study need not aim at scientific perfection or academic thoroughness. In practice, sufficient information for the formulation of a development programme can be obtained through interviews with small industrialists and craftsmen, combined with some other simple sampling surveys.

This method of "rapid" survey has been used with considerable success in India. A pilot economic investigation team was set up in 1955 in the Office of the Development Commissioner, Small Scale Industries. Subsequently, such an investigation team was attached to each of the four Small Industries Services Institutes at Bombay, Calcutta, Delhi and Madras. The number of the teams was further increased to 16 in 1956. Each team consisted of both economists and engineers. A special syllabus for training new team members and uniform survey-methods were introduced.

As of April 1959, some 30 industries in various parts of India had been surveyed. In all cases, the survey covers the growth and present status of the industry, the demand, competition (large-scale versus small-scale, indigenous products versus imports and competition between regions and states) and employment outlook and problems relating to production, finance, marketing and distribution. Among the recommendations of the survey report, a general rating of the development prospect of a specific industry is given under three categories: rating A indicates excellent prospects where the Small Industries Serivce Institute can go all out to encourage technical improvement and expansion with confidence that the effects will be beneficial; rating B shows moderately good prospects, or good prospects with special circumstances (for example, large numbers of household producers whom it may be difficult to bring into technical improvement schemes) where the Small Industries Service Institute should do all it can to help the industry, but care will be required to ensure that beneficial effects reach all sectors. In some cases, it may be necessary to introduce alternative lines of employment; and rating C implies poor prospects where the Small Industries Service Institute should assist firms in an industry with this rating to switch to other products and should assist labour to transfer to other occupations.[52] The application of such a rating system[53] in the survey reports serves not only as a useful guide for the development authorities but is also making the entrepreneurs and craftsmen themselves aware of the problems and prospects of their industries.

In a programme of mechanization, the priority accorded to a particular industry may, of course, vary from country to country. However, in general, there are two groups of industries which deserve priority. First, those industries which affect a large number of workers and which, with improved equipment and techniques, appear likely to yield quick results in terms of cost reduction, quality improvement, market expansion and increased utilization of indigenous raw materials. In Ceylon, for example, high priority has been given to the mechanization of the textile weaving, coir, pottery and brickwork industries. In the Federation of Malaya, the technological improvement of the handloom, coir and leather tanning industries has been given special attention. In Iran, a major effort is currently directed at transforming the production methods of the handloom industry. In the Philippines, the development of the woven textiles, wood and bamboo products, ceramics, fibre and straw products industries has been accorded the highest priority. In Thailand, particular attention is given to the technological improvement of the niello-ware, silk, lacquer-ware and ceramics industries.

The second group consists of what may be called the "basic service" small industries. They are engaged in the manufacture of simple equipment and machines, or provide repair and auxiliary services to other industries. The most important industries in this group are woodwork, blacksmithy, multiple-purpose repair shops and small enginering workshops (such as welding, electroplating, metal fabrication, and also small foundries). Here, the quality of products of a wide range of industries, large and small, depends upon the quality of the services rendered and of the original component parts of machines supplied. Precision breeds precision; and imprecision, imprecision. Early attention to the technological improvement of this group of "basic service" small industries in a country can speed up its over-all industrial advancement.

Industrial Extension Services

An industrial extension service advising and assisting the small industrialists and craftsmen in the application of modern technology and management methods is one of the most important devices for the development of these industries in countries of the region. It is often said that not the lack of "know-how" but the lack of the necessary "carriers" to transmit such "know-how" hampers the technological innovation of small enterprises. In the field of agriculture, improved production in many countries of the world has been made possible through the work of the agricultural extension services. Some of the principles and techniques developed in this field have been applied to small industries with equal effectiveness.

As in the case of agricultural extension services, there are three basic approaches in applying the extension principles to small industries: (*a*) the individual approach, in which extension workers maintain personal contact with the owner-managers of the small manufacturing units, and render advice and assistance on the spot, (*b*) the group approach through demonstration and pilot plants or group training programmes and (*c*) the mass approach through meetings, exhibitions, publications and other mass media. In practice, all three methods can be employed in combination. However, operational experience in countries both inside and outside the region shows that the individual approach has proved most effective. It enables the extension workers to devise specific measures suited to the need of a particular enterprise. On the technical side, for example, personal attention can be given to the removal of any defects of the existing production equipment and process, the addition of new machines or processes, the introduction of new items of manufacture, and better utilization of raw materials and fuels. Short of the individual approach, the group approach through demonstration and pilot plant may be useful in cases where there is a concentration of the same type of small industries in one locality. However, care must be taken to ensure that the types of equipment and process used in these plants, for training and demonstration purpose, are financially and technically within the reach of most of the industries concerned. Finally, the use of the mass approach can help in arousing public interest and, sometimes, in changing the attitude and outlook of small industrialists and craftsmen.

India and Japan are the two countries in the region where a small industry extension service on a comparatively large scale has been introduced. In India, such a service is built up around a network of 15 Small Industries Services Institutes (one in each state), 4 branch institutes, and 64 extension centres. These centres cover areas where small units engaged in a particular industry are concentrated, and are specially equipped to serve the industries concerned. An important feature of the service is that technical officers from the institutes and extension centres are continuously on the move, visiting workshops and factories in their area and giving technical assistance and guidance on the spot. It was reported that, from the establishment of this extension service in 1955 up to March 1959, some 70,000 small manufacturing units had been visited by the technical officers of the service. In addition, technical advice has been given to some 48,000 parties, and no less than 12,000 parties provided with the necessary information on setting up new industries.[54]

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[52] *Small-Scale Industry Analysis and Planning Reports,* Development Commissioner, Small Scale Industries, New Delhi, India.

[53] For illustrative examples, see document E/CN.11/L&NR/L.15, ECAFE secretariat.

[54] *Industrial Extension Service,* Development Commissioner (Small-Scale Industries), New Delhi, India (April 1959), pages 3-8.

The extension service in India also employs a fleet of 47 mobile demonstration vans equipped with tools and small machines for trades such as those of blacksmith, carpenter, shoe-maker and manufactures of leather goods, sheet metal products, pottery and so on. These vans tour the rural areas where there is a concentration of such trades. Craftsmen are given the oportunity to operate the machines mounted on the vans. The staff attached to the vans help to repair the craftsmen's tools and give information on the specifications, prices, and sources of supplies of the machines as well as on the procedures for the hire-purchase schemes. Up to the end of March 1959, the vans had visited 1,924 centres, and as many as 18,576 craftsmen had been trained in the operation of the machines fitted in these workshops.

In Japan, a small industry advisory service was established in 1948. An interesting feature of this service is that it sends "diagnosis" teams to individual enterprises. These teams are composed of business management, production and engineering experts who conduct a thorough investigation of all aspects of the enterprises visited, and recommend specific measures for their improvement. These services are provided free of charge either by the central or prefectual governments. There are now some 680 consultation centres throughout the country. In addition, the Smaller Enterprise Agency is subsidizing some 590 such centres operated by the prefectural government.[55]

In countries where a comprehensive programme has not yet been evolved, an effort is made to provide advisory services to small industries through the various technical service departments of the government. In a few countries where technological and research institutes have been established, these institutes play an important part in rendering technical assistance to small industries. However, in most of these cases, the scope of field extension work is necessarily somewhat limited. It appears, therefore, that one of the most urgent needs in connexion with the development of these industries in many countries of the region is to train a nucleus staff for extension work and gradually to build up a national extension service.

However, given the limited technical personnel and resources available, many countries may find it difficult to initiate such a programme. On the other hand, there now exists a large body of information on techniques and methods of organizing small industry extension services which have been developed and tried out during recent years in many parts of the world. One possible solution of the problems would therefore be for two or more neighbouring countries to establish, with the assistance of the appropriate aid programmes, joint Small Industry Development Institutes. Such institutes need not be engaged in operational problems. Their main functions are to assist the participating countries in establishing an over-all small industry development programme, in training industrial extension workers, organizing national extension centres, preparing instructions and demonstration material, providing technical enquiry services and disseminating information on the proper use of raw materials and on improved designs of machinery. Various international training schemes in agricultural extension services, incidentally, have proved successful in many parts of the world. The promotion of small industry extension services along similar line could be equally effective and help to speed up modernization.

Financing and Hire-purchase Scheme

The financial requirements of small scale industries like those of large industries, are of three types—long-term fixed capital and medium and short-term working capital. A full discussion of the financial problems of small industries is beyond the scope of this paper. Special attention will be given here to some of the measures needed in connexion with the modernization of small industries and to hire-purchase schemes as a means of promoting the modernization of these industries.

Financing: During recent years, most countries in the region have made a considerable effort to aid small industries to finance their activities. Special institutions have been set up in many countries to make loans to small enterprises. Measures have also been taken to encourage the regular banking system to give more attention to small manufacturers. Although the scope of assistance and the institutional framework may vary from country to country, there are a number of common problems which deserve attention.

First, in addition to direct financial aid from governments, there is considerable scope for expanding commercial bank credit in many countries to small enterprises. To this end, a credit insurance or guarantee system needs to be evolved. In Japan, for example, the development of such a system which provides insurance or a government guarantee to financial institutions against possible non-repayment of small industry loans has greatly helped the expansion of commercial credit facilities for these industries. At the end of 1958, credit from private financial institutions accounted for nearly 91 per cent of the total loans outstanding of small enterprises in the country. Thus, the establishment of a credit insurance or guarantee system could help to mobilize domestic savings, and would, in the long run, ease the government's burden as regards direct financial assistance to these industries.

Secondly, in the administration of a financial assistance programme for small industries, decentralization is imperative for the sake of efficiency and effectiveness. Financial institutions servicing these industries should, whenever possible, set up branch offices or agencies in all important small industry centres. Local governments at the state or district levels could also be encouraged to participate to the fullest extent in any financial aid programme. In India, for example, the state governments are usually required to match, in the ratio of 1:2, the funds made available by the central government to small industries, and to share the loss of non-recoverable loans on a *pro-rata* basis. Also, in order to simplify lending procedures and to facilitate prompt action on loan applications, it is often desirable to delegate authority to local offices to grant loans up to certain specific ceilings. Such a decentralized operation would help in mobilizing local resources and in administering the aid more effectively on the basis of local conditions and of intimate contact with prospective borrowers.

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[55] *Administration for Development of Smaller Industries in Japan*, Smaller Enterprise Agency, (July 1959), page 6.

Thirdly, the effectiveness of the credit systems has in many cases been limited by the rigidity of conventional methods and approaches. There is thus a need to relax the security requirement in respect of small industry loans. Above all, there should be a re-orientation of the attitude of the staff dealing with such loan programmes. As an example, the State Bank of India inaugurated in 1956 a pilot scheme for the provision of co-ordinated finance to small industries. It had been observed that some "pilot" centres had done better than others, which was not solely due to the existence of suitable small scale industrial units at those centres. Better performance was accounted for by the greater initiative and the more helpful attitude of the staff.[56]

Fourthly, there are cases where, on account of lack of clear direction or established criteria for evaluating project priorities, the examination of loan applications from small industries has become an extremely slow process. This is particularly so in cases where the staff has not been trained for this kind of work. While no written rules or operational manual can replace the personal judgment of experienced staff, the establishment of a set of clear-cut "eligibility criteria" for various forms of small industry loans would permit more orderly and speedy handling of loan requests and, more important, it would ensure that investments are channelled to the most desirable industries. In this connexion, it may be noted that the Government of the Republic of Korea has adopted a "value points" system for evaluating the priority of small industry loan applications. Under this system, each loan application for the supply of equipment and machinery is evaluated in terms of the industry's "essentiality" to the national economy, i.e. of export potential, utilization of indigenous materials, import savings, and employment creation, as well as technical and management soundness and financial status. In addition, due consideration is given to plant location. Industries in villages or small towns are accorded a higher priority with a view to encouraging a decentralized pattern of development. Under this rating system the total "value points" for the most desired project would be 400; the priority of each loan application is determined in the order of the "value points" calculated.[57]

Finally, it may be observed that, apart from direct financial assistance, a number of countries of the region have exempted small enterprises from payment of import duty on equipment and machinery, and have also granted them special tax concessions in respect of capital investments. The extension of such tax incentives would give an impetus to the modernization of these industries.

Hire-purchase scheme: It is increasingly recognized that, to be effective, credit assistance to small industries needs to be combined with technical and managerial advice. Here again, the development of a supervised credit system for small industries as in the case of agriculture seems to offer great promise. One such supervised credit scheme makes machinery available to small manufacturers on a "hire-purchase" plan under which payment will be made on an instalment basis on very liberal terms. However, the title of the machinery provided is held by the lending agency until the machinery is fully paid for by the hire-purchaser.

Although the hire-purchase technique is of comparatively recent origin in countries of the region, it is becoming increasingly popular. Such a scheme is now in full operation in Burma, India, and Indonesia; and several other countries are considering the establishment of similar schemes.

Experience shows that the hire-purchase scheme presents several special advantages. It permits a certain degree of control and orientation of domestic investment —the allocation of equipment can be so directed as to favour certain industry groups, specific sizes of establishment or particular geographic areas. It induces mobilization of domestic capital to cover expenditure connected with the installation and operation of the machinery, and permits better use of foreign exchange reserves. It guarantees the loans by providing for repossession of the equipment by the government in case of default by the entrepreneur.[58] In addition, it may be used as a convenient means of promoting standardization of machinery, encouraging the domestic manufacture of equipment and improving the services of machinery importers and dealers.

As to the operation of this scheme, applicants are usually required to pay an advance deposit or "earnest money". The amount of payment required varies according to the type and value of machinery requested.[59] So is the rate of interest. In Burma, for example, equipment is paid for in semi-anual instalments, including simple interest at 6 per cent per annum, over a period determined by mutual agreement between the hire-purchaser and the lending agency. In India, payment is made by semi-annual instalments spread over a period not exceeding 8 years. Interest of 4.5 per cent is charged for machines worth up to Rs 15,000, and 6 per cent for machines costing more than this amount. In conformity with the government's policy of encouraging industrial co-operative movements, certain concessions are given to co-operatives both in earnest money and in the rate of interest.

The implementation of the hire-purchase schemes in Burma, India and Indonesia brings out several important operational problems. First, while it may be necessary, at the initial stage, to operate such a scheme under an established government agency, it is preferable to organize it as an autonomous body. It should have its own finances and should supervise all phases of hire-purchase, from the screening of applications to the procurement and installation of equipment. Such a procedure would save time, reduce staff requirements and permit closer control of the operations.[60] In India, the administration of this scheme is now entrusted to such an autonomous agency—the National Small Industries Corporation. Secondly, the operation of a hire-purchase scheme even on a modest scale requires a small number of technical staff who would be able to assist the small industries concerned in all matters connected with the selection, installation and maintenance of the equipment and machinery. In India, hire-purchase financing has been greatly facilitated with the assistance of the Small Industries Service Institutes which provide all the necessary technical advisory services and, in fact, help the lending agency in examining the loan applications. Thirdly, special attention should be given to furnishing spare parts. In Burma, a liberal interpretation is usually given to the term "machinery". The hire-purchase contract may include, for example, a two-year supply of spare parts. Fourthly, administrative procedures should be simplified, and the processing of loan applications should be speeded up. The time lag between the placing of orders and the delivery of equipment should be kept down to a minimum. In order to speed up equipment delivery and to meet urgent demands, the Small Industries Corporation in India maintains a stock of general purpose machines, such as various types of lathes, shaping machines, drilling machines, power presses, welding machines, grinding machines, and power hammers. Records show that some 80 per cent of the machinery requested under the hire-purchase scheme in India are valued at Rs 50,000 or less. Thus, for countries which intend to introduce such a scheme, it might be advisable to start with the provision of standard or simpler types of equipment, which are both relatively inexpensive and readily marketable, if repossessed. As further operational experience is gained and staff is better trained, the scheme may be gradually extended to cover the financing of more costly or special-duty equipment. Finally, it may be mentioned that he success of the scheme depends largely on the response from small industrialists. In both Burma and India, publicity for the scheme was made through newspapers and publications. In India, catalogues with full specifications of the machines held in stock were widely distributed. Show-rooms for the display of machines were held in important small industry centres. Mobile vans were also used to popularize this scheme in the rural areas.

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[56] B. P. Patel, "Financing of Small-Scale Industries," *Journal of the Indian Institute of Bankers*, Vol. XXX, No. 2.

[57] For details of the rating system, see table 1, document E/CN.11/I&NR/L.15, ECAFE secretariat.

[58] Joseph E. Stepanek, "Hire-purchase Loans for the Mechanization of Small Industry", United Nations, *Industrialization and Productivity Bulletin*, No. 1 (April 1958), page 49.

[59] In Burma, the hire-purchasers are required to pledge up to 30 per cent of the c.i.f. value of imported machinery in the case of loans of under 100,000 kyats, and 25 per cent for loans above this amount. In India, the applicants are required to pay 10 per cent of the quoted price of the machinery as earnest money if the value of the machinery is under Rs.2,000. In the case of general purpose machinery costing more than Rs.2,000, an advance of 20 per cent of the quoted price will be payable. In the case of special purpose machinery, the advance payment would range from 25 to 40 cent.

Consolidation and Co-operation

As indicated earlier, the organizational weakness of small industries is one of the major obstacles to the improvement of their efficiency. Some of these industries are too small to be efficient. In order to overcome the difficulties, countries in the region are giving increasing attention to the organization of co-operatives, the provision of common facility services, the promotion of trade associations, the encouragement of co-operation between large and small enterprises, and the establishment of industrial estates.

Co-operatives: While helping small industries to be self-reliant, co-operative organizations can serve as an effective channel through which government assistance can be routed. The provision of joint facilities for credit, marketing, and bulk purchase of raw materials and equipment confers some real economic advantages. However, in most countries of the region, except perhaps Japan, the industrial co-operative movement is still in its early stage of development.[61] In Japan, the common facility type of co-operative represents about 70 per cent of all small industry co-operative units in the country. Members of the common facility co-operative retain their independent status, but band together in rationalizing those phases of their business which cannot be handled efficiently on an individual basis. Further development of co-operative organizations in countries of the region seems to require a major effort on the part of public authorities to promote co-operative education and training programmes.

Common facility services: In countries where co-operative organizations have not yet been fully developed, the government's assistance and support will be needed for the setting up of common facility services for small industries. In most cases, the organization of such services requires considerable financial support for the acquisition of land, erection of buildings and purchase and installation of equipment and machinery. The type of common-facility service to be established should be based on an intensive investigation of the common needs and deficiencies, both actual and potential, of the industries concerned.

Experience shows that common facility services would be particularly advantageous in the development of textile-weaving, ceramics, woodwork, rattan and bamboo, tanning and leather work, paper, lacquer-ware and umbrellas, and some of the small engineering industries. Certain types of common-facility services[62] can be initiated on a modest scale and make possible substantial improvements in the operational efficiency of these industries.

Trade associations: Another important way of bringing about closer co-operation among small manufacturers is to promote the organization of trade associations. In Denmark, Netherlands, Sweden and several other European countries, these associations of small industrialists play an important part in providing training, advisory, research and financial services for their members—often with the aid of government subsidies. In both India and Japan, the small industry development programmes also lay great stress on the promotion of these constructive types of trade associations' activities. The formation of such associations, even on a modest scale, would help to combat the narrow "trade secret" attitude and to avoid unnecessary competition among small enterprises.

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[60] Joseph E. Stepanek, *op.cit.*, page 54.

[61] See in this connexion, "Handicrafts and Small-Scale Industries in Asian Countries: Possibilities of Co-operative Organization" in *International Labour Review* (Vol. LXII, 6 Dec. 1950).

[62] For illustrative examples of common facility services, see table 2, document E/CN.11/I&NR/L.15, ECAFE secretariat.

Inter-firm assistance: However, in long-term perspective, closer co-operation between small and large-scale enterprises will be particularly important for a growing economy. In all the industrialized countries, large manufacturing firms are a very important source of technical assistance for small producers. In Japan, for example, one of the major advantages to the small manufacturers engaged in sub-contracting is that they usually receive technical guidance, and also machinery and equipment on a rental basis, from the parent firms. In India, a great effort is now being made to develop ancillary small units around large units as feeders of components and parts. Under this scheme, large manufacturers provide the small ancillary units with designs, drawings, raw materials and technical guidance, and purchase the entire production at an agreed price. An interesting feature of this scheme is that, in cases of any hesitancy on the part of the large-scale unit to place orders with the successful small-scale bidder because of doubts about its competence the Small Industries Corporation can either underwrite the contract or take it in its own name for execution by small-scale units through a sub-contract.[63]

Industrial estates: The establishment of industrial estates to provide small manufacturing units with better accommodation facilities (such as power, water, transport) will not only minimize their needs for fixed capital, but also serve as an important means ot increasing productive efficiency and promoting closer co-operation among related enterprises. Such estates will bring industries together and facilitate the organization of common servicing centres, the introduction of modern techniques, the training of workers and the collective purchase of raw materials and sales of finished products.

An industrial estate can be constructed and managed by private venture or by co-operative societies or by the government itself. All these variations have been tried in the United Kingdom where the industrial estate has been a notable success. Factories to be built inside the estate need to be planned by competent architects in order that they may conform to the factory laws and regulations, and designed on modern lines in order to ensure the convenience and safety of the workers and promote increased efficiency and output. For this purpose, it is generally advisable before the actual design work is undertaken, to make a careful investigation of the types of industries to be accommodated and of their operational requirements, such as floor space and plant lay-out. In the selection of the type of industries for a particular industrial estate, special attention should also be given to their inter-trading and inter-servicing relations. For example, a small unit manufacturing cycle parts or sewing machine parts should have an electroplating or enamelling unit nearby. A proper combination of the related industries in an estate along these lines can bring down the cost of production considerably.

In India, a programme has been drawn up for the construction of some 100 industrial estates for small industries. The large estates cost from Rs 4-5 millions, while the smaller ones cost from Rs 2-2.25 millions. The responsibility for construction and management vests with the state governments; the Central Government advances the necessary funds to them in the form of long-term loans. In Pakistan, industrial estates have been established in Karachi and Hyderabad. In the Federation of Malaya, Hong Kong and Singapore, there are also industrial estates in operation. Ceylon has now one such estate under construction, and more are planned.

Plant Design and Machinery

In most countries of the region, the physical plants and equipment and machinery of small industries are extremely heterogeneous as regards age, type and country of origin. This state of affairs complicates the problems of quality control in production and in maintenance and repair. Thus, the question of plant design and equipment and machinery needs to be examined from the point of view of small industrialists as well as from that of the interest of the national economy as a whole.

Plant designs: The plant designs of large-scale industries are fairly standardized. In the case of small enterprises, there are generally few prototype plants in industrialized countries which can serve as a guide for small industrialists in countries of the region. Even when such plant designs are available, they may often be too complex to operate and maintain in newly developing countries. As a result, small manufacturers have to work out their own plant designs with whatever technical knowledge or experience they may possess. In most cases, they have no way of knowing whether their designs and plant performance will measure up to the desired standard.

In order to assist small enterprises in this basic problem, the Small Industries Service Institutes in India have prepared a series of "model plant designs" or "model schemes" in various fields of small industries which provide all the relevant information on capital and personnel requirement, production process and plant layout, type of raw materials and machinery required as well as the anticipated sales volume and profit margins. In mainland China, it was reported that similar model plant designs with simplified drawing and specification had been issued to handicraft co-operatives and other local authorities concerned with small industries.

Experience has shown that hese model plant designs have proved of considerable help to small manufacturers as general patterns which might be adopted in the light of local needs and circumstances. In India, small industrialists as well as other experts in this field were encouraged to give their comments on the published model schemes. The comments often helped in improving these model designs.

Selection and supply of equipment and machinery: All countries of the region except Japan and to a less extent India still depend mainly on imported equipment for their small industries. The selection of imported equipment is often hampered by the lack of information on specifications, costs, operating requirements and maintenance needs. Such information is not always given in the manufacturers' catalogues. Besides, unless a large collection is maintained, the catalogues do not offer a free choice among alternative sources of supply. The advice of importers or manufacturers' agents, too, is not necessarily objective. Many of the machinery dealers are not sufficiently trained to provide technical advisory services of this kind.

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[63] *Administrative Report,* 1957-1958, the National Small-Scale Industries Corporation, New Delhi, India, page 24.

Thus, apart from the provision of industrial extension services, there is a real need for the collection and dissemination, on a systematic basis, of engineering and economic data on equipment in a certain number of small industries. In reviewing this problem, a United Nations panel of experts recently recommended that a practical approach might be to assemble and disseminate basic technical data on individual pieces of industrial equipment, such as capacity, shipping weight, cost, product specifications and source of supply, as well as simplified drawings or sketches of the relevant items.[64] To be effective, such data need to be compiled objectively, and possibly to include an independent evaluation of the performance of the equipment. The preparation of an equipment manual on these lines might be undertaken by an independent private research institute or by a panel of international experts. Meanwhile, much further work could be done by the trade associations and equipment manufacturers of the machinery-exporting countries in this field. This work could include the training of sales agents in advisory services, the improvement of "after-sale" services, the organization of machine demonstration and exhibits, and issue of operation and maintenance manuals in local languages.

Another major difficulty faced by small manufacturers in importing equipment is the shortage of foreign exchange. The selection of equipment and machinery in many countries of the region has often been based on the availability of a particular currency. In the case of large industries, arrangements for deferred payments for equipment supplies are now offered by several major machinery-exporting countries. The provision of similar credit or other forms of loans by machinery-exporting countries to specially designated financial institutions (such as hire-purchase agencies, small industry finance corporations or investment banks) for the financing of equipment purchases by small industries could help to speed up the modernization of these industries and also expand international trade in industrial equipment.

With regard to the technical aspects of the selection of equipment and machinery for small industries, the questions of choice between single-purpose and multiple-purpose machines and that between new and used machines have often been raised. Several research studies of these subjects have recently been undertaken.[65] Generally speaking, the choice between these alternatives can only be made after a careful analysis of production costs and the operational requirements of the enterprises concerned. The industrial extension workers and other personnel concerned with small industry advisory services should take all these alternatives into account in assisting small manufacturers to select equipment and machinery. In this connexion, the use of properly graded second-hand machinery sometimes confers certain real economic advantages in terms of capital and foreign exchange savings. The trade channels for used machinery are comparatively well-developed in the countries of South America. Even in industrially advanced countries such as the United States, trade in second-hand machines has an important place in the industrial equipment market. However, in most countries of the region, proper trade channels for used machinery have not yet been established. Governments might stimulate such a development to start with. It has been suggested that they could make a contract with a well-known trading firm, stipulating the purchase of certain types of used machines and the provision of the necessary services such as inspection, grading, installation, etc.[66]

Development and manufacture of equipment and machinery: In recent years, a considerable effort has been made by several countries in the region to develop and manufacture equipment and machinery for small industries. Apart from Japan, which has already an established machinery industry, mainland China and India have substantially increased their production of machine tools and other machines. China: Taiwan, Hong Kong and the Republic of Korea are also producing considerable numbers and varieties of machines, such as motors, generators, lathes, diesel engines, oil extraction presses, textile weaving machines, woodworking and printing machines. Ceylon is manufacturing tea, rubber and coconut processing machinery.

The growing demand for simple farm implements, hand tools, woodworking machines and machinery for processing agricultural products in many countries of the region can be met, to a certain extent, by establishing or expanding domestic manufacturing facilities. The production of these simple types of equipment and machines need not wait for the establishment of heavy engineering and modern machine tool industries. With proper technical guidance and financial assistance, some of the existing "basic service" small industries, such as carpentry, blacksmith work and small engineering workshops can produce a great variety of equipment required by other small manufacturing units.

One of the ways of bringing about rapid development along these lines is to establish centres for prototype production and training. Such centres would undertake the production of the prototypes of machines, tools and accessories, and make the designs and drawings available to small industries. At the same time, the centres would provide on-the-job training for designers and skilled workers. Two such centres are now being established in India—one with the assistance of the United States, and the other with that of the Federal Republic of Germany. An interesting feature of the planned programme of the latter centre is that it will engage in the development and production of prototypes of machines and machine tools by resorting to any one or all the three of the following courses.[67]

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[64] *Management of Industrial Enterprises in Under-developed Countries,* E/3143, United Nations, (New York, 1958), page 18.

[65] See in this connexion, *Multiple-purpose Versus Single Purpose Woodworking Machinery.* Netherlands Economic Institute, Rotterdam (November 1958).

[66] *Second-Hand Machines and Economic Development,* Netherlands Economic Institute, Rotterdam (May 1958), page 28.

[67] Small Industries Corporation, *Administration Report, 1957-58,* page 191.

"(*a*) Reproduction of prototypes from machine tools and machines manufactured in Germany whose patent rights have expired and therefore, there is no need of arriving at any licensing arrangements though there may be need for obtaining a formal permission from the present producers;

"(*b*) Development and production of prototypes of such machines which are at present produced by German manufacturers whose patent rights are still in force by entering into licensing ararngements; and

"(*c*) Obtaining samples of machine tools at present being manufactured by Indian small-scale industrial units, developing and improving them and producing prototypes of the same."

For some of the smaller countries in the region, it might be difficult, in the initial stage, to set up such types of production and training centres because of shortage of technical personnel and finance. One possible solution would be for two or more countries to organize jointly, with the assistance of the appropriate aid programmes, a number of such centres in the field of the most important "basic service" small industries such as carpentry, blacksmith work, and small engineering manufacture. Such joint centres would produce prototypes of improved equipment and machinery, and provide in-plant training for technical personnel. Finally, they would assist in the setting up of similar national centres in individual countries.

Another important reason for furthering regional co-operation in this field is that the types of equipment and machinery required for small industries in most countries of the region are very similar. There were cases where individual countries laboriously traversed the same ground and tried to find solutions to similar problems, such as the development of coir machinery, the improvement of handlooms and power looms, and also of vegetable oil extraction machines. A certain amount of duplication of effort could have been avoided had the equipment and machinery perfected in one country been promptly made known to others. Here again, it is clear that it is vital to devise suitable methods, as suggested earlier, of collecting and disseminating, on a systematic basis, technical information on equipment and machinery for small industries.

Maintenance and repair: The equipment and machinery of the small industries in the less developed countries often suffer from an unduly high rate of depletion. The maintenance and repair problems of small enterprises present several special difficulties. Many small manufacturers lack the necessary equipment and technical knowledge in repair work. The establishment of central maintenance shops in the form of common facility services is, therefore, in some cases, the only practical solution. For widely scattered rural industries, the use of mobile demonstration and repair vans has proved successful in several countries.

The shortage of spare parts is another major difficulty faced by small manufacturers. It is often the case that both machinery-dealers and small enterprises themselves try to keep their stock of spare parts, if any, to the bare minimum in order to reduce working capital requirements. In some cases, they fail to obtain the urgently needed items because they cannot obtain the necessary foreign exchange allocation. The situation is further aggravated by the great variety of types and makes of machinery in use in most industries. A long-term approach to the problem might be to standardize the basic equipment as much as possible. Meanwhile, priority should be given in the allocation of foreign exchange to the purchase of spare parts for essential small industries. Also, it might be advisable, in some cases, to make it compulsory for machinery importers or dealers to include in their sales contract certain guarantees for the supply of spare parts to the purchasers.

Finally, poor maintenance is often a matter of attitude. In many cases, the lack of attention to preventive maintenance is due to neglect or indifference to this problem on the part of the owner-managers and craftsmen of the small enterprises. There may be unwillingness to engage in expenditure which does not appear to yield immediate returns. This aversion can only be overcome by technical education and training, and by the work of industrial extension services. Meanwhile, a wider distribution of some practical maintenance guides or manuals with simple sketches and diagrams can be of great help in promoting "maintenance-consciousness" among small industries. In this connexion, the manual on maintenance and repair of motor vehicles,[68] prepared by the International Labour Organisation (ILO) may be cited as a good example.

Specifications and Standards: The enforcement of certain quality specifications and uniform standards is an essential step towards the improvement of the product quality and production efficiency of small industries. This is particularly important in the case of these industries which manufacture equipment and machines for other small enterprises.

However, in the drawing up of specifications and standards for equipment and machines produced by small manufacturing units, care must be taken not to lay down too high requirements as regards precision, at least in the early stage. Many small manufacturers, with their present equipment and technical skill, are able to produce only simple non-precision types of machine tools which are suitable for general production purposes and for repair work of various kinds. An indiscriminate application of rigid specifications and standards would lead to waste of development resources. A practical approach would be to classify the equipment and machinery into different grades in accordance with various operational requirements and draw up an appropriate standard for each grade. This would offer a certain degree of flexibility in a programme of standardization and, at the same time, encourage small manufacturers to seek continuous improvement in their products.

It is generally considered that adaptation of standards should be preceded by, or take place in conjunction with, the establishment of uniform weights and measures and technical terminology. The equipment and machinery which deserve priority consideration in the drawing up of a programme of standardization are hand tools, general-purpose machine tools, pumps and electric motors.

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[68] *A Practical Instruction Manual, Maintenance and Repair of Motor Vehicles,* ILO, Geneva (1955).

Assistance in establishing national standards can be obtained from various national as well as international sources, such as the International Organization for Standardization. This is a field where international co-operation is particularly important. In the case of standardization of equipment and machinery for small industries, close co-operation between countries within the region would be specially valuable, as the problems encountered in most countries are essentially the same. The Indian Standards Institution, for example, have recently published the specifications for a great number of hand tools and other basic equipment for small industries. The exchange of such information between countries would be particularly helpful in developing industrial equipment in the region.

Power Supplies

The pace of mechanization of small industries will be determined largely by the availability of electric power. The distribution of electric power at cheap rates has been an important factor in the success of small industries in northern European countries and Japan. However, in most countries of the region, except China: Taiwan and Japan, power is at present available mainly in the major cities and towns and, even there, it is not always adequate and cheap. With the existing rate of power development, it is expected that, in most countries, power supply to small industries in urban areas will improve. But the problem of providing electricity supply to the widely scattered rural industries will remain difficult for many years to come.

Apart from the shortage of capital and technical personnel, a major hindrance to rural electrification programme in ECAFE countries is the scattered nature and small size of loads. As can be seen from the following examples, the connected loads as well as the energy consumption of most of the household or cottage industries in rural areas, are small, and the service connexions are few and far between.

Silk throwing—½ hp
Single-unit power loom—½ hp
Knitting machine—1/3 hp
Carding of wool—3 hp
Type-weaving—¾ hp
Small machine shop—1/3 hp
Oil extraction (pinto oil press)
for coconut and groundnut—3 hp
Cotton-ginning (double-roller type)—4 to 5 hp

At the present stage of development, this type of scattered and small load requirement can only be met in most countries by diesel generating units. However, the problems of fuel supply and maintenance and repair connected with the operation of a large number of scattered small diesel units often present many serious difficulties because of lack of local service facilities. Besides, few governments can afford to finance the necessary electric equipment for such a large number of small producing units on an individual basis.

Thus, in most countries of the region, the present scope for improving manufacturing processes in rural areas by the introduction of electricity in homes or in individual small units is likely to be extremely limited. The alternative then is to bring about a certain degree of consolidation of the production functions of individual small units, so that those parts of the manufacturing process which require electricity supply can be performed jointly. The establishment of rural community workshops, central production centres or other forms of common facility services equipped with central diesel stations has proved an effective and economic method of providing small producers in rural areas in many countries with the essential power supply.

Another approach would be to link rural cottage industry, for its requirements of raw materials (either in a processed state or a semi-processed state) to large enterprises or small manufacturing units in areas where power is readily available, and to make available these raw materials cheaply to cottage industrial workers in the areas which do not have the advantage of power. In Ceylon, for example, steps have been taken to develop several cottage industries such as textiles, coir, carpentry, pottery, rattan and basketry along these lines.[69]

However, viewed in a long-term perspective, the development of modern workshops and decentralized small factories in rural areas can only be advanced by expanding the rural electrification programme. In this connexion, the Sub-Committee on Electric Power recently recommended the appointment of a panel of international experts by ECAFE to visit the countries of the region and to render advice on the technical and economic problems in respect of rural electrification. Early implementation of this recommendation should greatly help the technological advancement of rural small industries.

Research and Training

In the final analysis, an efficient research and training service alone can ensure the rapid and continuing technological advance of small industries. At the present stage of development, technological research in this field in most countries of the region centres primarily on the readaption of known techniques and equipment and on the new or improved use of raw materials. To perform these services effectively, it is essential to have an efficient line of communication between research workers and small manufacturers. In countries where an industrial extension service has been established, extension workers would bring the results of research to small manufacturers for application and, at the same time, bring back to research personnel any new problems which need to be solved. In the absence of such an extension service, care should be taken to ensure that research projects are of practical value to small enterprises and that improved equipment and techniques are within their means. This is particularly important in countries where only limited research personnel and facilities are available. There, initial effort might best be directed to these projects having good prospects of practical application.

A considerable number of research institutes in countries of the region are now concerned with the technology of small industry. With a view to facilitating the exchange of technical information between these institutes, the ECAFE secretariat has recently compiled a directory of technological institutes which gives a summary of the research undertaken by each body.[70] It is hoped that, with further co-operation from all research institutes in the region, this directory can be revised periodically and thus keep the information up to date.

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[69] *Administration Report of the Director of Rural Development and Cottage Industries*, Colombo, Ceylon (1957).

The possibilities of providing training to small industrialists and craftsmen through industrial extension services, co-operative organizations, trade associations and production-cum-training centres have already been discussed. In addition, there appears to be considerable scope for extending apprenticeship schemes in small industries. One special advantage of apprenticeship is that it usually provides the trainees with all round experience in both technical and management aspects of a particular trade. Several countries in the region, e.g. Burma, Ceylon, the Federation of Malaya, India and Pakistan, have taken steps to promote apprenticeship programmes on a systematic basis.

Apart from short-term intensive training programmes, there seems to be an increasing need in ECAFE countries to develop basic and relatively long-term training for small industries. The establishment of any long-term training schemes such as polytechnics and trade schools should be closely related to the existing or future employment opportunities in the industries. Otherwise, a situation might arise, as happened in several countries where newly trained personnel has failed to find appropriate employment, thus causing frustration and waste.

In long-term training programmes for small industries, consideration should also be given to the provision of training facilities on a geographically decentralized basis. The present concentration of training facilities in towns and urban areas has often given rise to two major problems. First, a large proportion of small manufacturing units in rural areas simply cannot avail themselves of the training opportunities. Secondly, workers trained in towns and cities generally look forward to employment in large industries instead of in small ones. The competition for skilled workers between the two sectors often deprives small enterprises of qualified and experienced personnel.

In the long term, the provision of basic technical training on a wide scale seems to depend on making manual training and industrial education an integral part of the general educational system. This problem has been given increasing attention by countries in the region. Several countries have already introduced basic training in small industries on a fairly wide scale through their fundamental education programme.

Finally, in both research and training and, in fact, in the development of small industry as a whole, most countries in the region have benefited considerably during recent years from external assistance, for example under the Colombo Plan (assistance in the establishment of mechanized woodwork training centres in Ceylon), from Japan (assistance to the carpentry training centres in the Federation of Malaya), from France and the Federal Republic of Germany (modernization of small engineering industries in India) and by Sweden (assistance to the Institute of Technology in Pakistan). The United States of America has been aiding small industry development in many countries of the region through its technical assistance programme. The Ford Foundation is currently assisting the small industry programme in India, Nepal and Pakistan. In addition, the United Nations and its specialized agencies have been providing help to many countries in this field.

V. RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE ECAFE COMMITTEE ON INDUSTRY AND NATURAL RESOURCES

In view of the importance of small industries to the national economy of countries in the region, the ECAFE Committee on Industry and Natural Resources made a special examination of the problems and techniques of the modernization and mechanization of these industries at its twelfth session held in Bangkok in February-March 1960. It was recognized that the advancement of these industries would have to depend primarily on national efforts to evolve an integrated development progremme. The Committee felt, however, that, for many countries in the region, the implementation of such a programme, even on a modest scale, might prove a difficult task at present on account of the shortage of finance and trained personnel and of the lack of training and research facilities. Furthermore, there were cases where individual countries had laboriously covered the same ground and tried to find a solution to similar problems.

It was therefore considered that, in the field of small industry development, many immediate practical results could be obtained through international co-operation. The Committee recommended that the following projects should be explored by ECAFE countries:

(1) It may be more economic and effective in some cases for two or more neighbouring countries to establish joint Small Industry Development Institutes or to expand some of the existing national institutes for regional purposes. Such institutes would assist the participating countries in establishing an over-all small industry development programme, training industrial extension workers, organizing national extension centres, preparing instructions and demonstration material, providing technical inquiry services and disseminating information on the proper use of raw materials and on improved designs of machinery.

(2) In order to speed up the development of the "basic service" small industries and to achieve a certain degree of standardization of the products of the region, priority should be given to the establishment

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[70] *Industrial Development Series, Cottage and Small Scale Industries* (ST/ECAFE SER.M/12, December 1958).

of a number of joint Prototype Production and Training Centres for training and demonstration in the field of woodworks, blacksmith work, multiple-purpose repair workshops and small engineering industries. These centres should be strategically located in various parts of the region as model plants. A mobile structure may also be suggested, so that the centres can assist the early establishment of similar plants in the participating countries.

(3) As the pace of modernization of small industries is governed, to a large extent, by the availability of economic power supply, the ECAFE secretariat should provide the services of a panel of experts, as recommended by the Sub-Committee on Electric Power, to visit countries of the region and to offer advice on the technical and economic problems in respect of rural electrification.

(4) In view of the difficulties experienced by small industries as well as government industrial extension workers in the selection of equipment and machinery, there is a need systematically and continuously to assemble and disseminate basic data on industrial equipment, e.g. on capacity, shipping weight, cost, product specification, maintenance needs, and source of supply, as well as simplified drawings or sketches of the relevant items. The compilation of such data might take the form of an equipment manual or a loose-leaf handbook. The preparation of the manual could be entrusted to an independent research institute or to a panel of international exports.

(5) The traditional role of trade associations and equipment manufacturers of the machinery-exporting countries in promoting their products will certainly continue to be important, and, in fact, should be greatly expanded. This could include provision of credit for the purchase of equipment on a deferred payment basis, improvement of equipment design and servicing facilities which will be most suited to the needs of the newly developing countries, promotion of joint venture projects to produce tools and machines in these countries, and the despatch of specialists to these countries to assist in the design and marketing of products and in the organization of machine tool exhibits.

(6) Machinery - exporting countries should consider grants of loans to designated financial institutions in countries of the region in order to finance the purchase of equipment for small enterprises.

In conclusion, the Committee observed that, as the types of small industries in the countries of the region were so varied and the need for the advancement of their technological level so great, sustained assistance and joint efforts are called for from all international agencies, governmental and non-governmental organizations in order to ensure that equipment perfected in one country is immediately made known to others, that duplication of development and research efforts is avoided and that capital expenditures for developing small industries is minimized by proper selection and adoption of the most suitable equipment for each installation. Effort along these lines might help to improve, even in the short run, the standard of living of millions of workers and to build up a dynamic sector of industry, thereby stepping up the pace of over-all industrial development in the region.

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UNITS AND SYMBOLS EMPLOYED

Unless otherwise stated "tons" relate to metric tons, and "dollars" relate to United States dollars.

The following symbols have been used throughout:

* = 12 months beginning 20-23 March of the year stated.
‡ = 12 months beginning April of the year stated.
† = 12 months ending September of the year stated.
ø = 12 months ending June of the year stated.
Mn = million.
I, II, III, and IV for quarters of years.

. = not applicable.
... = not available.
— = nil or negligible.
r = revised figures from this issue.
Figures in italics are provisional or unofficial.
Figures in brackets are from national sources.

Substantial breaks in the homogeneity of a series are indicated either by a horizontal line across the column or by vertical double lines in a row of figures.

SOURCES

To ensure comparability, data compiled or published by the United Nations Statistical Office have been incorporated wherever feasible; material supplied by governments, publications of governments, of the United Nations specialized agencies and of international commodity study groups have been used as additional sources.

1. REGIONAL STATISTICAL SERIES

Annual and quarterly figures

	1952	1953	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1958	1959			
									IV	I	II	III	IV
POPULATION (*Mid-year, million*)													
Including mainland China	1,365	1,387	1,411	1,433	1,462	...	...	...	.	.	.	.	.
Excluding mainland China	796	804	816	825	841	854	865	*878*	.	.	.	.	.
AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTION[a]													
Index of agricultural production (*1952/53—1956/57=100*)													
All commodities	93	98	100	103	106	105	108	...	.	.	.	.	.
Food	92	99	100	103	106	105	107	...	.	.	.	.	.
Per capita food	95	100	100	102	103	100	101	...	.	.	.	.	.
Cereals (*million tons*)													
Rice (paddy)	99.0	111.0	104.1	112.9	118.5	109.6	122.5	...	.	.	.	.	.
Wheat	14.7	15.7	17.7	18.4	18.6	19.6	17.8	...	.	.	.	.	.
Maize	5.5	6.9	7.8	6.8	7.3	7.2	7.9	...	.	.	.	.	.
Millet and sorghums	15.1	18.5	18.2	15.5	15.4	16.6	17.8	...	.	.	.	.	.
Starchy root crops (*million tons*)													
Potatoes	5.6	5.2	5.6	5.9	5.9	6.8	6.8	...	.	.	.	.	.
Sweet potatoes and Yams	13.4	12.8	13.3	15.3	15.6	15.0	15.5	...	.	.	.	.	.
Cassava	9.7	11.8	12.8	12.4	12.3	13.1	14.1	...	.	.	.	.	.
Oilseeds (*million tons*)													
Groundnuts (in shell)	3.6	4.2	5.0	4.7	5.1	5.5	5.9	...	.	.	.	.	.
Copra	2.4	2.3	2.6	2.6	2.8	2.7	2.3	...	.	.	.	.	.
Tea (*thousand tons*)	552	553	615	634	634	651	660	*650*	180	[illegible]	*164*	*219*	*160*
Tobacco (*million tons*)	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.8	...	.	.	.	.	.
Fibres (*million tons*)													
Cotton (lint)	1.1	1.2	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.3	...	.	.	.	.	.
Jute	2.4	1.5	1.6	2.3	2.3	2.2	2.4	...	.	.	.	.	.
Natural rubber (*thousand tons*)	1,706	1,637	1,714	1,811	1,770	1,781	1,797	*1,924*	507	424	461	494	544
INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTION													
Index of industrial production[b] (*1953=100*)													
Mining and manufacturing	90	100	110	124	149	167	170	200	175	187	195	201	215
Mining	94	100	100	116	133	149	150	158	153	150	160	160	164
Manufacturing	90	100	111	125	151	169	172	205	178	192	200	207	222
Food beverages, tobacco	91	100	101	120	131	137	142	148	132	187	127	129	151
Textiles	88	100	112	124	145	147	140	154	146	145	150	157	162
Paper and paper products	80	100	113	130	165	167	167	208	176	190	199	215	226
Chemicals, petroleum and coal products	85	100	113	133	159	183	191	218	197	198	221	221	230
Non-metallic mineral products	92	100	114	119	140	165	169	190	175	173	192	192	205
Basic metals	91	100	109	120	142	157	151	200	160	169	196	203	225
Metal product	81	100	116	126	177	231	244	342	266	290	331	390	398
Coal (*million tons*)	85.3	88.5	85.3	86.9	92.8	103.1	103.2	*104.3*	26.9	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Iron ore (*million tons*)	7.77	7.70	8.41	8.91	10.34	11.55	12.09	*15.75*	3.20	3.49	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Tin in concentrates (*thousand tons*)	105.1	104.4	109.9	109.6	108.5	104.1	73.1	72.7	16.5	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Petroleum, crude (*million tons*)	15.90	17.59	20.19	34.50	46.17	57.64	63.18		15.74	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	...
Salt (*thousand tons*)	5,043	5,246	4,692	5,023	5,553	6,810	*7,604*	...			.	...	.
Sugar (*thousand tons*)	3,806	4,152	3,931	4,807	4,942	5,146	5,287	*5,385*	.	2,631	916	622	[illegible]
Cotton yarn (*thousand tons*)	1,070	1,225	1,351	1,386	1,497	1,397	1,487	*1,596*	353	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Cotton fabrics (*million metres*)	6,606	7,545	8,153	8,188	8,889	9,268	8,257	8,421	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Jute manufactures (*thousand tons*)	992	942	1,013	1,145	1,268	1,209	1,255	1,321	[illegible]	323	316	337	[illegible]
Paper and paper board (*thousand tons*)	1,525	1,946	2,136	2,478	2,858	3,285	3,380	*4,197*	899	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	*1,141*
Vegetable oils (*thousand tons*)	839	879	969	1,084	1,150	1,317	1,198	1,227	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Cement (*million tons*)	12.7	14.8	17.7	17.9	21.0	24.5	25.6	*28.3*	6.6	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Steel (ingots & metal for castings) (*thousand tons*)	8,616	9,234	9,520	11,209	12,957	14,408	14,063	*19,249*	3,722	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	5,515
Tin metal (*thousand tons*)	64.7	64.9	74.5	74.5	78.9	74.3	48.2	*48.4*	10.2	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Electricity (*thousand million kWh*)	62.4	67.7	73.3	78.8	89.6	97.4	100.9	*119.6*	24.3	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
TRANSPORT[c]													
Railway traffic (*thousand million*)													
Passenger kilometres	152.8	157.5	163.5	170.9	182.0	189.5	195.3	*204.8*	47.9	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	*51.3*
Freight ton-kilometres	96.5	100.0	98.3	107.5	117.5	130.2	131.2	*138.9*	33.7	[illegible]	[illegible]	*33.4*	*35.8*
International sea-borne shipping (*million tons*)													
Freight loaded	29.6	34.9	36.7	39.9	41.6	43.5	43.6	*42.8*	11.6	[illegible]	[illegible]	*10.3*	*9.7*
Freight unloaded	50.5	62.0	64.5	70.1	82.9	99.7	85.7	*101.0*	22.1	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	*28.0*
EXTERNAL TRADE													
Total value (*million US dollars*)													
Exports	7,599	6,940	7,256	8,346	8,880	9,454	8,829	*10,132*	2,391	2,155	2,464	[illegible]	2,907
Imports	9,528	8,893	8,566	9,152	10,915	13,075	10,568	*11,065*	2,614	2,424	2,772	[illegible]	2,953
Quantum index[d,r] (*1953=100*)													
Exports	99	100	110	125	133	142	138	...	148	134	150	157	...
Imports	98	100	106	110	129	145	125	...	127	118	140	138	...
Unit value index[d,r] (*1953=100*)													
Exports	110	100	99	102	100	100	95	...	95	95	97	100	...
Imports	108	100	96	96	97	103	97	...	93	94	91	90	...
Terms of trade[d,r] (*1953=100*)	101	100	103	107	103	98	98	...	102	102	107	111	...

1. REGIONAL STATISTICAL SERIES *(Cont'd)*
Annual and quarterly figures

	1952	1953	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1958	1959			
									IV	I	II	III	IV
XTERNAL TRADE *(Cont'd)*													
Direction of trade[e] *(million US dollars)*													
Exports to:—													
ECAFE countries	2,964	2,562	2,539	2,669	2,984	3,180	2,814	*2,978*	731	636	*737*	*754*	*851*
Western Europe (including U.K.)	1,863	1,759	1,789	2,135	2,198	2,120	1,993	*2,197*	560	464	*498*	*559*	*676*
U.K.	840	744	845	1,004	1,004	922	1,002	*1,100*	290	235	*242*	*279*	*344*
U.S.A.	1,390	1,238	1,172	1,530	1,532	1,652	1,630	*2,217*	466	458	*548*	*591*	*620*
Sterling area	2,851	2,339	2,691	2,964	2,990	3,191	2,998	*3,112*	838	684	*953*	*659*	*816*
Imports from:—													
ECAFE countries	3,100	2,794	2,679	3,012	3,388	3,643	3,298	*3,550*	881	739	*958*	*874*	*979*
Western Europe (including U.K.)	2,436	2,221	2,188	2,202	2,590	3,183	2,419	*2,593*	634	572	*683*	*652*	*686*
U.K.	1,073	930	902	955	1,133	1,323	1,033	*1,083*	272	232	*286*	*275*	*290*
U.S.A.	2,193	1,800	1,813	1,990	2,414	3,371	2,572	*2,441*	654	554	*676*	*635*	*576*
Sterling area	2,914	2,682	2,400	2,659	3,076	3,613	2,866	*3,026*	770	683	*780*	*831*	*732*
Export of primary products[f]													
Quantum index *(1953=100)*													
General	98	100	102	108	109	112	106	*110*	109	100	109	111	*120*
Food	96	100	107	108	115	120	114	*118*	105	106	114	119	*131*
Agricultural materials . .	101	100	99	109	105	101	99	*105*	111	99	97	108	*116*
Mineral products	95	100	95	100	111	133	112	*106*	111	76	150	98	*96*
Unit value index *(1953=100)*													
General	118	100	100	108	102	102	99	*109*	106	103	106	109	*117*
Food	100	100	105	95	91	93	92	*91*	100	91	88	92	*91*
Agricultural materials . .	131	100	97	119	111	110	102	*125*	100	112	120	124	*139*
Mineral products	109	100	93	95	101	102	108	*105*	109	103	105	102	*112*
Quantity of exports (*thousand tons*)													
Food													
Fish, fresh or simply preserved	145	153	164	180	173	172	279	232	85	63	53	58	57
Rice and rice products . .	2,945	2,654	2,987	3,294	3,244	3,988	3,064	3,442	503	716	887	949	892
Sugar	1,255	1,755	1,604	1,689	1,632	1,804	1,959	*1,772*	345	537	605	266	*364*
Tea	394	436	459	409	458	420	457	452	134	85	92	124	148
Spices	62	59	47	80	90	88	74	97	23	27	16	23	31
Agricultural materials													
Hides and skins, raw . . .	22	24	24	22	20	20	18	22	5	4	8	5	8
Oilseeds, oil nuts & oil kernels	1,143	1,017	1,219	1,232	1,416	1,396	1,092	*1,098*	320	215	191	306	*387*
Rubber, natural	1,692	1,611	1,688	1,782	1,699	1,737	1,689	*1,930*	489	472	*449*	*495*	*513*
Wood and lumber	1,094	1,481	1,732	2,023	2,251	2,359	3,321	*4,146*	960	748	1,156	1,353	*890*
Cotton, raw	321	379	222	320	265	204	223	*175*	45	55	*47*	*43*	*27*
Jute, raw	841	982	892	981	958	785	906	809	278	201	156	162	290
Hemp, raw	127	132	122	135	143	141	109	*114*	25	30	30	25	*28*
Vegetable oils, not essential .	495	404	499	602	515	450	417	*404*	119	80	94	93	*130*
Mineral products													
Iron ore	3,152	3,728	3,540	4,399	5,636	6,631	5,877	*7,758*	1,313	1,221	2,482	2,256	*1,810*
Tin ore and concentrates . .	46	45	45	44	45	42	27	30	6	6	7	9	9
Manganese ore	1,463	1,593	1,006	936	712	1,742	976	986	197	246	290	246	203
Coal	2,729	2,201	2,063	1,562	1,940	1,655	1,800	1,556	446	436	349	395	375
Crude petroleum	5,670	6,963	7,083	8,367	10,027	12,408	12,478	*9,825*	3,409	1,535	4,484	1,715	*2,093*
GOLD AND FOREIGN EXCHANGE ASSETS[g,r] (*end of period, million US dollars*)	5,200	4,878	4,728	5,131	4,876	3,746	4,035	*4,706*	4,035	4,254	4,312	*4,470*	*4,706*

GENERAL NOTES: In general, the regional statistical series cover the countries of the ECAFE region except mainland China, Nepal and, in most of the cases, Afghanistan and Iran; in some cases, other countries have also been omitted because of lack of data. Except in the case of mainland China, countries omitted from the regional series are, from the point of view of the series, usually less important. To ensure comparability, the countries included in different periods for each series are the same.

a. Crop year except rubber and tea beginning from the year stated. FAO source except rubber and tea for which the International Rubber Study Group and the International Tea Committee figures are used respectively.

b. This index compiled by the United Nations Statistical Office, covers Afghanistan, Brunei, Burma, Ceylon, China: Taiwan, Federation of Malaya and Singapore, Hong Kong, India, Indonesia, Iran, Japan, Republic of Korea, Pakistan, Philippines, Sarawak, Thailand and Republic of Viet-Nam. For more detailed statistics and explanatory notes see United Nations *Monthly Bulletin of Statistics.*

c. For countries covered see table 14 below.

d. Based on quantum and unit value indexes of exports and imports, compiled by governments, for Burma, Ceylon, China: Taiwan, Federation of Malaya and Singapore, India, Indonesia, Japan, Republic of Korea (since 1957), Pakistan, Philippines, Thailand and Republic of Viet-Nam. (Quantum indexes for Indonesia, Korea and Pakistan are derived from unit value indexes.) These national indexes are combined to form the regional index with the dollar values of exports and imports in the base year 1953 as weights. Exports and imports of the countries included in the index account for 89 and 90 per cent of total exports and imports of the region respectively, excluding Afghanistan, mainland China, Iran and Nepal, in the base year. Intra-regional trade is not deducted.

e. For countries covered see table 16 below.

f. Exports of 18 primary products and food from 19 countries and territories (excluding Afghanistan, mainland China and Nepal) are included in the index. To minimize the effect of transit trade, only export of domestic produce is included for Hong Kong and net export of rubber is used for the Federation of Malaya and Singapore. The quantity of exports of each item is totalled for 19 countries and territories and relatives have been then weighed by the total value of exports of each commodity in 19 countries and territories in terms of United States dollars in 1953 to form the quantum index. The unit value index is obtained by dividing the index of total value of exports in United States dollars by the quantum index. The commodities included in the index account for 44 per cent of the total value of exports from the 16 countries. (If Hong Kong and Japan are excluded, the percentage is increased to 57.)

g. Includes Burma, Ceylon, China (Taiwan), Federation of Malaya and Singapore, India, Indonesia, Iran, Japan, (official only), Republic of Korea, Pakistan, Philippines, Thailand and Republic of Viet-Nam. Figures prior to 1952 exclude Japan and those prior to 1955 exclude Viet-Nam.

2. INDEX NUMBERS OF INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTION

1953=100[a]

	Weight	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1958	1959				1960	
								IV	I	II	III	IV	Jan	Feb
CHINA (Taiwan)														
Industrial production[b]	100.0	107	119	125	142	149	171	179	172	183	183	204	189	...
Mining and quarrying	10.5	100	114	120	134	144	155	155	144	171	133	171	173	...
Coal	7.4	88	99	106	122	133	149	143	133	162	137	164	163	...
Manufacturing[b]	76.6	107	120	125	143	148	173	183	180	187	194	213	193	...
Food[b]	19.0	85	101	104	126	121	121	180	192	108	180	192	169	...
Textiles	17.8	116	122	115	128	119	148	141	131	149	147	166	148	...
Chemicals	9.5	109	120	134	158	164	209	198	190	211	207	227	197	...
Construction of buildings	1.1	106	145	104	118	177	118	178	129	119	117	107	121	...
Public utilities	11.9	115	123	135	149	162	182	179	164	178	187	200	193	...
Electricity	7.6	115	126	144	163	184	205	210	183	201	211	225	214	...
INDIA[c]														
Industrial production	100.0	107	116	126	130	132	143	125	138	136	143	147	...	...
Mining	7.2	103	107	110	122	128	136	126	137	139	130	132	...	...
Manufacturing	90.7	107	116	126	130	131	142	124	137	133	142	146	...	...
Sugar	4.3	84	123	144	160	152	161	84	382	30	9	167	...	...
Tea	5.9	106	110	110	111	118	116	138	18	113	215	139	...	...
Textiles	48.0	103	106	112	109	105	107	100	101	105	107	104	...	...
Rubber products	3.4	117	129	139	152	167	191	160	172	189	195	205	...	...
Chemicals	4.2	108	122	132	140	159	165	160	162	176	177	179	...	...
Non-metallic mineral products[d]	3.3	115	124	141	160	180	202	173	188	204	200	203	...	...
Basic metal industries	8.0	121	119	124	126	128	170	131	143	161	184	186	...	...
Non-electrical machinery	0.6	153	205	269	371	457	532	468	497	569	520	561	...	...
Electrical machinery	1.5	112	138	184	216	241	261	245	241	263	262	263	...	...
Transport equipment	2.9	113	171	236	246	229	288	212	238	250	319	318	...	...
Electricity	2.1	112	128	145	163	185	220	185	195	225	225	224	...	...
Industrial production (seasonally adjusted)	.	.	.	.	.	.	...	131	137	136	143	153	...	...
JAPAN														
Industrial production	100	108	117	144	167	168	207	176	188	201	212	228	224	249
Manufacturing and mining	92.8	108	117	143	169	169	210	177	190	203	214	231	226	253
Mining	7.2	96	97	107	118	114	113	120	109	112	113	117	113	118
Manufacturing	85.6	110	119	147	174	175	220	183	199	213	224	243	238	267
Food	11.5	108	115	122	128	135	142	110	200	124	123	120	163	253
Textiles	15.0	109	121	144	159	143	167	149	150	162	170	184	177	189
Chemicals	10.7	114	132	159	187	194	224	200	198	234	230	235	234	235
Ferrous metal	9.0	105	117	143	162	153	201	160	166	198	210	230	221	224
Machinery	17.0	113	114	166	230	247	352	274	284	339	370	415	388	442
Public utilities	7.2	106	114	131	146	155	177	165	166	174	179	190	193	187
KOREA, Republic of (1954=100)														
Industrial production	100.0	100	119	143	187	195	*207*	195	*174*	*211*	*218*	*221*	*198*	...
Mining	10.0	100	115	145	194	212	*267*	212	*236*	*255*	*266*	*308*	*346*	...
Manufacturing	87.0	100	120	143	188	194	*200*	194	*167*	*207*	*214*	*211*	*180*	...
Textiles	48.0	100	119	142	188	198	*207*	198	*190*	*209*	*212*	*219*	*208*	...
Metal products and machinery	13.0	100	128	179	235	208	[illegible]	208	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	...
Electricity	3.0	100	98	124	148	169	*188*	169	*184*	*184*	*179*	*204*	*196*	...
PAKISTAN														
Industrial production	...	128	161	182	192	*215*	...	*227*	*238*	*227*	...	...	...	...
Mining	...	101	107	125	130	*145*	...	*153*	*144*	*123*	...	...	...	...
Manufacturing	...	131	167	189	200	*222*	...	*222*	*250*	*236*	...	...	...	...
PHILIPPINES														
Mining	.	94	102	113	126	125	...	136	137	142	...	...	...	...
Manufacturing	.	113	127	147	158	170	...	170	176	198	...	...	...	...

a. Original base: *Ceylon*, 1952; *China (Taiwan)*, 1954; *India*, 1951; *Japan*, 1955; *Republic of Korea*, 1955; *Pakistan*, 1950; *Philippines*, 1955.

b. Sugar production is excluded from the monthly and quarterly index but included in the annual index. Weights relate to annual index.

c. Quarterly figures relate to the mid-month of each quarter.

d. Manufactures of non-metallic mineral products except products of petroleum and coal.

3. PRODUCTION OF SELECTED COMMODITIES

Monthly averages or calendar months

Thousand tons

	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1958	1959				1960	
							IV	I	II	III	IV	Jan	Feb
NATURAL RUBBER[a]													
Cambodia	2.0	2.3	2.7	2.6	2.8	2.9	4.1	1.7	2.5	3.2	4.1	3.5	0.7
Ceylon	8.0	7.9	8.1	8.3	8.5	7.8	9.4	6.1	6.0	8.2	10.7	11.0	4.4
Fed. of Malaya & Singapore	49.5	54.1	53.1	54.1	56.2	59.1	61.7	55.4	55.0	62.9	63.2	66.3	55.6
India	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.0	2.8	1.5	1.5	2.1	2.8	2.4	1.2
Indonesia	62.5	62.1	58.1	58.0	52.0	61.1	65.7	50.0	66.0	58.1	70.3	46.4	51.1
Sarawak	2.0	3.3	3.4	3.5	3.3	3.7	3.7	2.7	3.4	4.6	4.1	3.9	4.2
Thailand	9.9	11.0	11.3	11.3	11.6	14.4	10.1	17.8	10.2	15.7	13.9	13.1	16.2
Viet-Nam, Republic of	4.6	5.5	5.9	5.8	6.0	6.3	8.6	3.4	6.1	6.8	9.0	6.0	0.3

3. PRODUCTION OF SELECTED COMMODITIES *(Cont'd)*

Monthly averages or calendar months

	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1958	1959				1960	
							IV	I	II	III	IV	Jan	Feb
OAL													
China (Taiwan)	177	197	211	243	265	297	285	265	323	274	325	325	...
Federation of Malaya[b]	19	17	15	13	6	6	5	7	5	6	8	7	...
India	3,123	3,237	3,339	3,683	3,839	3,982	3,923	4,057	4,001	3,910	3,959	4,182	4,365
Indonesia	75	68	69	60	51	...	55	52	44	56	...	...	...
Iran	21	20	16	15	14	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Japan	3,560	3,535	3,880	4,311	4,139	3,935	4,345	3,888	3,904	3,920	4,034	3,916	4,032
Korea, Republic of	74	109	151	203	223	345	260	277	313	352	436	444	450
Pakistan[c]	47	45	55	44	51	51	62	54	37	55	59	...	...
Philippines	10	11	13	17	9	...	7	6	...	...	...	...	...
Viet-Nam, Republic of	—	—	—	1.0	1.7	1.7	1.3	1.4	1.8	1.6	1.8	0.9	1.1
RON ORE[d]													
Federation of Malaya	103	124	207	252	237	318	222	213	350	395	316	259	...
Hong Kong	8	10	10	8	9	...	10	10	10	10	11	9	10
India	333	361	359	391	483	654	533	640	616	624	735	816	...
Japan[e]	136	126	159	187	167	207	182	160	203	231	233	187	213
Korea, Republic of	3	2	5	15	22	23	20	26	24	25	19	27	22
Pakistan	0.1	—	0.6	2.0	0.7	...	0.8	0.5	0.2	0.1	...	...	...
Philippines	119	119	120	112	92	...	98	115	103	109	...	...	...
IN CONCENTRATES *(tons)*													
Burma	68	94	67	59	*102*	*102*	*102*	*102*	*102*	*102*	*102*	*102*	*102*
China (mainland)	*644*	*1,016*	*1,186*	*1,354*	*1,524*	*1,524*	*1,524*	*1,524*	*1,254*	*1,254*	*1,254*	*1,693*	*1,693*
Federation of Malaya	5,109	5,186	5,274	5,020	3,256	3,177	2,812	2,855	2,964	3,149	3,740	4,141	3,921
Indonesia	3,036	2,825	2,545	2,347	1,968	1,830	1,796	1,554	1,920	1,727	2,119	1,636	1,553
Japan	61	76	79	80	94	*85*	96	90	88	74	*90*	*90*	*90*
Laos	9	21	20	23	26	*25*	26	25	25	25	25	*31*	*31*
Thailand	828	933	1,057	1,145	654	820	642	641	849	815	976	1,011	1,010
ETROLEUM, CRUDE[f]													
Brunei	399	438	470	450	434	450	455	450	454	458	437	...	...
Burma	15	18	19	33	39	44	42	39	45	46	46	43	...
Indonesia	898	982	1,061	1,289	1,342	...	1,359	1,351	1,537	*1,560*	...	...	...
Iran	292	1,422	2,207	2,927	3,333	3,731	3,330	3,513	3,767	3,735	3,908	4,111	3,881
Japan	25	29	29	27	31	34	31	31	32	34	38	41	38
Pakistan	22	23	24	25	25	26	26	25	25	26	28	...	...
Sarawak	6	6	6	6	5	...	5	5	5	...	...	...	...
SALT													
Burma	7.7	8.4	7.2	9.7	9.2	...	8.9	...	...	...	...	...	...
China (Taiwan)	30.7	35.1	25.4	32.3	36.6	35.8	46.9	46.3	52.7	3.4	40.8	47.3	...
India	229.9	252.2	276.5	307.0	350.1	264.9	103.9	174.1	582.5	244.4	58.8	52.8	...
Indonesia	10.9	3.8	9.1	28.9	19.6	...	67.8	—	...	...	...	...	...
Japan[g]	35.4	46.1	52.3	69.3	88.2	97.1	90.1	75.8	100.1	118.4	94.1	71.6	...
Korea, Republic of	15.0	23.5	16.4	32.0	38.4	32.5	21.0	—	27.2	68.1	34.7	0.6	0.1
Pakistan	33.6	33.8	32.8	38.3	29.9	...	25.1	20.8	20.8	25.7	...	...	...
Philippines	4.0	6.7	5.3	8.6	11.6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Thailand	18.5	19.7	20.6	21.9	35.6	38.3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Viet-Nam, Republic of	...	6.4	5.0	6.6	5.1	...	1.8	...	...	...	...	...	...
SUGAR[h]													
China (Taiwan)	53.5	65.9	64.6	76.5	72.2	74.0	84.9	196.2	32.2	—	67.4	192.4	...
India	91.9	136.8	165.1	170.0	165.7	176.3	156.8	414.0	70.0	8.1	213.4	...	...
Indonesia	59.8	71.4	65.5	69.0	64.5	71.3	15.7	—	91.3	171.2	21.2	—	—
Iran	7.0	6.9	6.9	6.8	9.2	...	...	11.2	...	...	...	...	...
Pakistan	6.4	8.0	7.4	9.4	13.8	...	13.2	31.8	12.1	0.6	...	...	...
Philippines	108.4	103.7	97.0	85.8	100.6	122.6	...	230.1	95.2	22.9	141.2	...	...
Thailand	3.7	4.5	5.4	5.7	5.8	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
TEA													
Ceylon	13.9	14.4	14.2	15.0	15.6	15.6	15.3	15.1	19.3	12.1	15.9	15.9	14.3
China (Taiwan)	1.6	1.1	1.1	1.3	1.1	1.7	1.0	1.0	1.9	1.0	2.7	1.2	...
India	24.4	25.3	25.2	25.4	27.0	26.7	31.8	4.4	24.1	47.9	30.5	26.7	...
Indonesia	3.9	3.6	3.5	3.9	3.9	3.7	4.3	3.7	3.4	3.2	4.1	3.8	3.4
Pakistan	2.1	2.0	2.1	1.8	2.2	2.3	2.9	0.2	2.3	3.9	2.7	0.2	—
COTTON YARN													
Burma	0.15	0.12	0.12	0.14	0.20	0.30	0.14	0.25	0.24	0.32	0.38	...	...
China (Taiwan)	1.9	2.1	2.0	2.3	2.3	2.6	2.6	2.3	2.6	2.7	2.8	2.7	...
Hong Kong	3.3	3.5	3.8	4.0	4.4	5.2	4.6	4.3	5.2	5.3	5.7	...	...
India	59.0	61.6	63.2	67.3	63.7	65.0	66.2	64.9	62.8	65.1	67.1	65.4	63.0
Japan	33.7	34.9	41.1	43.1	36.6	39.7	37.1	36.3	39.1	39.6	43.6	41.4	46.7
Korea, Republic of	1.7	2.2	2.6	3.4	3.7	4.0	4.2	3.9	4.1	4.0	4.0	4.1	4.0
Pakistan	7.3	10.4	11.4	12.0	13.0	...	14.4	14.2	13.8	15.2	...	...	...
Philippines	0.06	0.05	0.07	0.07	0.06	...	0.06	0.08	0.08	*0.09*	0.11	0.07	0.07
COTTON FABRICS *(Mn metres)*													
Ceylon *(Mn sq. metres)*	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.4	0.5	...	0.4	0.6	0.5	0.6	...	...	...
China (Taiwan)	13.8	13.6	11.6	13.0	12.2	13.0	13.6	11.9	13.9	12.9	13.4	12.6	...
India	381	388	404	405	375	374	377	374	370	378	378	382	369
Indonesia	3.8	4.2	4.4	4.7	4.6	...	4.8	4.4	...	...	...	...	...
Japan *(Mn sq. metres)*	222	210	242	268	218	230	213	219	231	228	245	238	263
Korea, Republic of *(Mn sq. metres)*	8.0	8.4	10.2	13.8	10.4	11.0	11.3	10.7	11.7	11.0	10.5	10.9	10.3
Pakistan	26.5	31.5	38.1	40.2	43.9	...	44.2	49.1	45.1	47.5	...	...	...
Philippines	1.1	0.9	1.4	1.2	0.9	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.6	0.7	0.4
Thailand	...	3.1	4.4	4.1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
JUTE MANUFACTURES													
China (Taiwan) (Gunny bag, *Mn pieces*)	0.75	0.90	1.05	1.01	0.73	1.41	1.11	1.38	1.32	1.19	1.76	1.45	...
India	73.6	87.0	92.5	87.2	89.9	89.0	89.8	87.7	88.0	91.1	91.2	88.1	...
Pakistan	4.5	7.5	12.1	12.6	14.5	19.0	17.6	15.8	18.3	20.0	21.8	...	...
Thailand (Gunny bag, *Mn pieces*)	0.05	0.24	0.30	0.31	*0.29*	...	*0.29*	...	...	...	...	...	...

3. PRODUCTION OF SELECTED COMMODITIES *(Cont'd)*

Monthly averages or calendar months

Thousand tons

	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1958	1959				1960	
							IV	I	II	III	IV	Jan	Feb
PAPER													
China (Taiwan)	2.5	2.8	3.6	5.0	6.0	7.1	6.8	6.8	7.0	7.0	7.7	7.5	...
India	8.7	10.1	10.4	10.7	13.1	15.0	13.7	13.6	12.7	16.2	17.5	17.0	...
Japan[i]	160.1	183.6	214.0	246.8	249.1	319.0	264.7	288.9	310.6	327.0	349.2	...	...
Korea, Republic of	1.5	1.7	2.0	1.8	2.3	3.3	2.8	2.3	[illegible]	3.3	4.1	3.8	...
Pakistan	...	1.1	1.4	1.7	1.4	1.6	1.4	1.8	1.7	1.8	1.1	...	..
Thailand	0.17	0.17	0.25	0.23	*0.23*	...	*0.23*	*0.22*	*0.22*	*0.22*	...	...	...
VEGETABLE OILS													
China (Taiwan): Edible oil	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.1	0.7	1.4	1.2	0.7	...
Federation of Malaya: Coconut oil	8.2	8.0	9.2	8.2	6.7	5.7	4.1	4.0	6.2	6.6	6.0	5.3	6.0
Palm oil	4.6	4.8	4.7	5.0	6.0	6.1	5.6	5.6	5.5	7.0	6.1	6.0	7.3
India: Edible oil (Vanaspati)	19.5	22.1	21.6	25.5	25.0	26.8	22.6	28.6	28.3	24.7	28.3	32.1	...
Indonesia: Palm oil	14.1	13.8	13.7	13.4	12.3	11.5	11.3	9.4	11.1	13.4	[illegible]	9.8	10.4
Japan: Coconut oil	1.6	2.3	2.0	2.4	2.2	2.8	2.3	2.4	3.3	2.2	3.4	...	...
Others	9.0	13.0	15.1	16.3	19.9	20.6	23.4	19.3	19.1	24.5	19.3	...	...
Pakistan: Vegetable oil	0.9	1.2	1.4	1.5	1.7	...	1.3	2.3	2.2	2.3	...	...	..
Philippines: Coconut oil	12.2	13.3	*17.7*	27.8	19.1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Singapore: Coconut oil	3.2	2.8	3.4	4.1	2.6	1.7	2.3	1.4	1.3	[illegible]	2.3	1.9	1.8
SUPERPHOSPHATES[j]													
China (Taiwan)	6.5	6.7	8.4	8.6	8.7	9.9	10.1	9.8	9.6	10.1	10.1	7.9	..
India	8.9	6.3	6.9	12.0	14.0	21.1	13.2	16.0	17.9	26.7	24.0	...	...
Japan	143.5	149.6	171.5	155.3	146.5	153.9	142.4	164.5	164.4	132.8	154.0	166.3	186.3
AMMONIUM SULPHATE													
China (Taiwan)	0.4	0.4	0.6	1.3	1.5	1.8	1.5	1.9	1.9	1.7	1.9	1.2	...
India	28.9	33.3	32.9	32.1	32.5	32.9	34.7	37.5	29.4	32.9	32.0	...	...
Japan	172.9	177.4	193.6	206.7	217.5	219.5	223.2	225.0	239.6	218.7	194.6	214.3	191.5
PETROLEUM PRODUCTS[k]													
Burma	10.2	10.7	11.4	17.6	24.4	...	25.3	...	...	...	...	...	...
China (Taiwan, *thousand Kilolitres*)	37.0	51.0	52.8	55.8	56.7	68.1	62.1	63.2	76.9	66.8	65.3	68.0	.
Indonesia	825.8	863.9	859.0	911.1	847.8	...	[illegible]	912.2	[illegible]	...	...	...	...
Iran	[illegible]	[illegible]	919.2	1,251.7	1,302.9	1,307.4	1,191.0	[illegible]	1,253.3	[illegible]	1,374.7	...	...
Japan (*thousand Kilolitres*)	616.7	717.8	984.1	1,212.6	1,346.5	1,820.9	1,514.2	1,544.5	1,719.7	1,802.9	2,216.6	2,255.1	...
Pakistan	6.2	6.3	7.0	7.2	7.4	...	7.2	8.1	7.1	7.6	...	...	...
CEMENT													
Burma	4.9	5.0	3.2	3.1	3.0	3.0	3.8	3.1	2.9	2.5	3.5	2.2	2.5
Ceylon	7.0	7.1	7.1	4.1	6.7	7.4	8.0	7.8	6.8	[illegible]	8.0	..	...
China (Taiwan)	44.7	49.2	49.2	50.3	84.6	89.0	92.4	87.5	92.9	88.3	87.2	98.0	...
Federation of Malaya	7.2	9.1	8.7	9.5	9.2	16.0	9.3	11.0	14.6	17.6	20.9	20.7	17.5
Hong Kong	8.4	9.7	10.1	8.7	12.7	11.8	15.5	13.8	13.7	7.9	12.0	13.9	11.7
India	372.0	379.9	417.2	474.3	512.6	576.7	470.7	537.0	598.5	[illegible]	610.0	660.0	[illegible]
Iran	5.4	11.0	18.7	26.1	34.2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Japan	889.6	879.7	1,085.3	1,264.7	1,249.0	1,439.0	1,367.0	1,214.0	1,428.0	1,441.0	1,673.0	1,423.0	1,624.0
Korea, Republic of	5.1	4.7	3.8	7.7	24.6	29.8	28.4	22.0	27.9	34.2	35.4	32.9	33.6
Pakistan	57.0	57.7	65.4	91.3	90.8	82.8	94.2	86.7	90.7	73.8	79.9	...	...
Philippines	26.7	34.1	37.0	37.2	46.2	...	53.2	53.2	69.2	64.9	...	...	..
Thailand	31.9	32.2	33.1	33.5	38.0	40.1	37.3	38.9	42.9	39.9	38.8	37.9	37.7
BUILDING BRICKS[m] (*million units*)													
China (Taiwan)	31.33	30.67	33.42	39.00	43.92	[illegible]	50.76	46.84	44.01	[illegible]	[illegible]	80.6	...
Federation of Malaya & Singapore	6.92	9.05	10.76	11.90	11.00	9.63	11.00	10.10	9.11	9.78	9.51	7.83	...
Japan	20.00	19.00	21.25	23.00	19.00	19.00	20.00	[illegible]	20.00	[illegible]	[illegible]	15.00	15.00
Korea, Republic of	2.27	2.08	7.08	12.45	13.81	11.81	11.38	3.23	14.91	15.11	13.98	3.06	0.88
Philippines	0.07	0.03	0.03	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
STEEL (ingots and metal for castings)													
China (Taiwan)	4.1	4.8	6.0	7.4	8.9	13.2	11.1	11.1	12.0	12.4	17.5	14.6	...
India	142.7	144.3	147.1	145.2	153.5	206.0	160.0	184.6	195.4	207.0	235.7	264.0	...
Japan	645.0	784.0	925.5	1,047.5	1,009.8	1,385.7	1,072.5	1,175.4	1,325.0	1,453.6	1,588.7	1,649.8	1,685.0
Pakistan	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.4	0.8	0.8	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.7	1.0	...	...
TIN METAL (*tons*)													
Federation of Malaya	6,025	5,980	6,203	6,036	3,838	3,872	3,204	3,522	3,325	4,163	4,479	5,377	4,478
ELECTRICITY (*million kWh*)													
Cambodia	2	2	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	...	...
Ceylon	14	15	*16*	17	20	22	21	20	21	22	23	...	...
China (Taiwan)	150	164	187	213	237	268	263	239	262	276	294	280	...
Federation of Malaya[p]	73	79	84	89	74	77	71	70	74	78	85	...	...
Hong Kong	41	47	54	62	68	79	69	69	76	87	83	78	79
India	627	716	803	906	1,031	1,215	1,079	1,134	1,208	1,243	1,267	1,297	1,246
Japan	4,967	5,433	6,011	6,476	6,656	7,939	6,265	7,295	7,866	8,096	8,500	8,477	8,146
Korea, Republic of	75	73	93	110	126	141	140	134	138	134	152	146	139
Pakistan	41	51	64	78	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Philippines (Manila)	58	65	77	93	107	125	111	112	126	131	131	...	...
Singapore	27	31	36	41	47	51	47	49	51	52	53	...	...
Thailand (Bangkok)[q]	13	16	18	22	23	*26*	24	24	26	27	*27*	52	50
Viet-Nam, Republic of	15	17	18	18	20	22	21	21	22	22	23	23	21

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a. Including latex.

b. Lignite. c. Including lignite.

d. Approximate metal content of ores as follows: Hong Kong, 15%, India, 65%, Japan and the Philippines, 55%; Federation of Malaya, 60%.

e. Including iron sand.

f. Specific gravity: Brunei, Burma, Iran, Pakistan and Sarawak, 0.84; Indonesia, 0.85; Japan, 0.90.

g. Production in government licensed plants only.

h. Annual figures relate to crop year for the Philippines and Thailand, but calendar year for other countries.

i. Including paper board.

j. 16% P_2O_5 content.

k. Comprising motor spirit, kerosene and diesel oil for Burma; gasoline, diesel oil, kerosene and fuel oil for China (Taiwan); motor spirit, aviation spirit, kerosene, heavy oil, wax and paraffin, asphalt and cutback for Indonesia; motor spirit, kerosene, distillate fuel oils and residual fuel oil (prior to 1957) for Iran; gasoline, diesel oil, kerosene, fuel oil, gas oil, lubricating oil and others for Japan; motor spirit and kerosene for Pakistan.

m. The data relate to total production of clay bricks for building purposes, including common and facing bricks. Glazed, refractory, paving, concrete, shale and sand-line bricks are excluded.

p. Including electricity purchased from Singapore.

q Consumption of electricity; Bangkok Electric Works and Sam Sen Power Station.

4. CONSTRUCTION—NEW BUILDING

Monthly averages or calendar months

	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1958	1959				1960	
							IV	I	II	III	IV	Jan	Feb
eylon: completed[a]													
(Floor area—*thousand sq metres*)													
Residential	7.22	6.72	6.49	5.97	1.88	...	2.42	4.10	3.23	3.81	...	...	...
Non-residential	2.70	2.02	2.20	2.54	1.46	...	2.23	2.80	3.00	3.38	...	...	...
hina (Taiwan): completed													
(Floor area—*thousand sq metres*)													
Public	4.81	6.15	4.71	5.68	8.41	6.26	10.29	8.57	6.29	3.47	6.71	...	...
Private	25.67	32.73	23.55	26.67	35.85	24.13	35.95	24.58	24.39	26.58	20.96	...	...
ederation of Malaya: completed													
(Cost— *thousand Malayan dollars*)													
Residential	...	...	3,526	4,392	3,701	...	2,865	1,991	935	1,683	...	...	...
Industrial	...	...	347	413	272	...	451	292	69	119	...	...	...
Commercial	...	...	425	519	455	...	434	1,057	406	200	...	...	...
Others	...	...	990	1,221	972	...	777	897	479	441[r]	...	...	...
ong Kong: completed													
(Cost—*thousand Hong Kong dollars*)													
Residential	4,236	8,902	8,654	10,267	10,489	13,982	9,033	10,680	14,219	12,788	18,243	19,702	25,961
Industrial	671	862	815	1,016	2,330	1,488	4,877	1,688	675	1,903	1,688	1,698	1,678
Commercial	886	336	1,438	1,204	2,438	1,279	5,053	118	637	410	3,950	155	7,998
Others	1,807	1,845	2,197	1,696	4,847	1,746	9,156	1,259	941	1,963	2,820	2,765	1,642
apan: started													
(Floor area—*thousand sq metres*)													
Residential	1,400	1,454	1,752	1,870	1,933	2,145	1,979	1,741	2,152	2,327	2,362	1,295	...
Non-residential	1,367	1,328	1,665	1,775	1,593	2,093	1,775	1,736	1,925	2,201	2,512	1,653	...
orea, Republic of: permits issued													
(Floor area—*thousand sq metres*)													
Residential	...	13[b]	27	22	37	60	43	16	82	85	57	...	...
Non-residential	...	53[b]	65	66	67	83	68	47	113	98	74	...	...
hilippines:[c] permits issued													
(Value—*thousand pesos*)													
Residential	850	1,295	1,596	1,732	1,807	...	1,454	1,468	2,012	1,386	...	...	...
Non-residential	1,620	1,857	2,298	3,122	2,194	...	1,495	4,839	3,098	2,590	...	...	...
ingapore: completed (*Number of dwelling units*)													
Public[d]	239	279	184	124	340	172	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Private[e]	120	200	186	156	145	134	110	53	16	211	48	64	55
Thailand:[f] permits issued (*Number of buildings*)													
Residential	214	244	201	204	226	165	200	193	163	149	158	...	...
Non-residential	72	72	64	44	27	21	30	26	20	10	28	...	...
Viet-Nam,[g] Republic of													
(Floor area—*thousand sq metres*)													
Apartments	12.75	6.36	7.10	4.41	7.99	10.12	8.99	7.89	4.63	12.66	15.32	9.49	4.36
Houses	11.22	5.10	3.35	3.92	5.23	8.11	5.62	10.08	6.73	8.78	6.85	15.65	16.15
Others	4.09	2.10	2.82	1.99	2.80	4.20	2.06	2.58	2.71	8.37	3.16	6.13	1.49

a. Excluding particulars of buildings under building schemes.

b. December. c. Manila only.

d. Comprising buildings erected by or on behalf of Public Works Department, Singapore Improvement Trust and City Council.

e. Quarterly figures exclude buildings erected in city area which are not available.

f. Bangkok only.

g. Saigon-Cholon only.

5. VOLUME OF TRAFFIC: RAILWAYS, SEA-BORNE SHIPPING AND CIVIL AVIATION

Monthly averages or calendar months

	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1958	1959				1960	
							IV	I	II	III	IV	Jan	Feb
RAILWAYS[a]													
Passenger-kilometres (*million*)													
Burma†	57	66	70	78	90	...	111	...	...	...	...	...	...
Cambodia	4	5	6	7	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	5	...
Ceylon†	116	115	123	127	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
China (Taiwan)	186	211	237	287	308	308	309	330	319	272	311	347	313
Hong Kong	6	7	9	10	9	11	9	10	10	10	12	14	14
Fed. of Malaya and Singapore	47	49	50	52	49	50	47	51	50	47	50	...	...
India‡	5,039	5,038	5,467	5,583	5,616	...	5,306	5,938	6,114	5,401	5,680	...	...
Indonesia	335	421	388	395	460	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Iran	34	39	37	72	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Japan‡	7,253	7,603	8,173	8,437	8,851	...	8,628	8,835	9,284	9,591	9,430	9,926	...
Korea, Republic of	325	309	337	286	348	373	361	333	378	382	397	388	395
Pakistan‡	772	788	860	901	905	...	899	905	983	955	919	...	...
Philippinesø	35	37	43	49	58	62	61	60	76	56	...	...	...
Thailand	196	167	155	164	164	154	141	176	168	126	147	...	...
Viet-Nam[b]	11	31	32	37	36	43	35	44	38	43	48	57	...

TRANSPORT

5. VOLUME OF TRAFFIC: RAILWAYS, SEA-BORNE SHIPPING AND CIVIL AVIATION *(Cont'd)*

Monthly averages or calendar months

	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1958	1959				1960	
							IV	I	II	III	IV	Jan	Feb
RAILWAYS[a] *(Cont'd.)*													
Freight ton-kilometres *(million)*													
Burma†	44	53	51	51	52	...	48	57	64	59	...	...	...
Cambodia	5	2	4	5	5	7	3	8	9	5	6	6	...
Ceylon†	22	22	24	25	22	25	25	25	23	27	...	...	...
China (Taiwan)[c]	122	137	142	159	158	155	168	164	163	118	170	165	167
Fed. of Malaya and Singapore	32	33	37	36	32	46	32	37	42	50	55	...	...
Hong Kong	0.33	0.51	0.65	0.57	0.66	0.70	1.22	0.53	0.49	0.75	1.02	0.81	0.71
India‡	4,351	4,612	5,203	5,963	6,188	...	5,998	7,160	5,840	6,229	6,319	...	...
Indonesia	81	88	87	87	89	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Iran	99	104	113	125	121	161	130	137	133	151	167	...	...
Japan‡	3,277	3,500	3,859	3,971	3,727	4,088	4,099	3,705	3,973	3,841	4,431	3,750	4,100
Korea, Republic of	155	156	169	197	204	234	227	217	235	221	261	235	238
Pakistan‡	449	469	529	557	596	...	580	663	653	438	608	...	...
Philippinesø	12	13	12	13	17	15	13	15	16	15	...	...	...
Thailand	57	65	76	85	91	100	81	110	106	87	97	...	...
Viet-Nam[b]	12	‖ 7	5	7	7	10	8	8	9	10	12	...	...
INTERNATIONAL SEA-BORNE SHIPPING													
Freight loaded (L) and unloaded (U) in external trade *(thousand tons)*													
Ceylon L	92	88	82	83	69	66	71	63	65	60	77	51	54
U	203	191	205	268	280	321	317	317	284	274	410	398	545
China (Taiwan) L	85	106	104	111	149	147	145	185	163	106	133	163	171
U	142	155	177	193	189	203	167	194	209	221	190	230	183
Fed. of Malaya L	183	226	284	310	258	...	218	186	442	445	...	...	...
U	193	231	241	235	221	...	227	208	223	223	...	...	...
Hong Kong L	126	141	162	143	163	166	209	149	159	166	190	189	174
U	303	347	386	426	443	458	478	416	449	471	494	498	499
Indonesia L	1,068	1,040	1,096	1,500	1,412	1,067	1,391	656	2,027	931	642	413	216
U	326	389	488	526	292	292	347	227	341	337	263	1,480	243
Iran*[d] L	292	1,199	1,181	1,686	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
U	65	89	72	84	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Japan[e] L	476	624	681	645	726	790	768	774	801	781	805	606	799
U	2,794	3,058	3,870	4,890	4,093	5,406	4,299	4,256	5,568	5,613	6,185	5,899	6,157
Korea, Republic of L	9	8	11	15	10	15	16	9	28	15	8	7	8
U	82	171	74	104	98	96	96	123	95	87	80	52	73
Pakistan L	101	124	120	100	92	121	131	110	114	99	159	...	...
U	218	236	335	382	373	323	319	375	271	322	324	...	...
Philippines L	442	483	587	494	466	...	496	...	...	...	...	...	...
U	251	280	347	297	242	...	286	...	...	...	...	...	...
Singapore L	450	510	552	554	483	430	444	389	443	446	441	427	405
U	769	883	921	958	855	773	769	755	756	813	768	747	719
Thailand (Bangkok) L	138	161	164	186	162	175	157	148	162	156	233	245	193
U	108	116	126	138	142	154	145	155	158	150	154	159	128
Viet-Nam (Saigon) L	36	39	28	47	40	52	41	41	53	60	54	92	100
U	126	112	108	115	125	141	124	125	140	154	146	126	168
Entrances (E) and clearances (C) of vessels with cargo in external trade *(thousand net registered tons)*													
Burma[f] E	122	116	112	117	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
C	168	154	155	149	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
India E	753	806	829	947	1,014	...	1,107	1,113	994	1,129	...	...	...
C	800	702	737	702	812	...	858	985	1,017	954	...	...	...
CIVIL AVIATION[g]													
Passenger-kilometres *(million)*													
Burma	4.55	5.11	4.99	3.36	3.89	...	4.43	...	...	...	...	...	...
Ceylon	0.77	0.79	2.45	3.28	3.81	4.04	3.53	3.58	3.65	4.81	4.11	...	...
China (Taiwan)	3.64	3.85	3.99	4.50	4.55	5.48	4.56	4.44	5.83	6.33	5.42	4.24	4.68
India	36.70	42.92	56.60	65.13	72.0	78.23	78.8	76.6	77.1	76.8	82.31	71.08	...
Indonesia	15.01	19.87	22.40	23.34	16.16	21.40	19.97	19.97	20.23	22.48	22.93	...	...
Iran	*1.60*	2.58[h]	2.84[h]	3.06	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Japan	19.47	27.43	37.96	47.37	57.19	70.18	56.58	53.50	72.21	82.63	72.37	...	...
Pakistan	4.88	9.21	12.03	17.71	19.12	21.10	18.80	17.48	21.49	23.51	21.92	...	...
Philippines	10.84	10.08	11.74	13.94	15.61	19.23	17.17	16.88	22.12	17.57	20.36	...	...
Thailand	3.35	4.14	5.01	6.53	4.18	3.56	3.49	3.39	3.85	3.06	3.96	3.55	3.04
Freight ton-kilometres *(thousand)*													
Burma	181	112	94	66	73	...	72	...	...	...	...	...	...
Ceylon	12	14	118	144	120	161	123	123	157	178	186	...	...
China (Taiwan)	199	203	162	165	168	180	220	188	193	165	174	156	156
India	2,357	2,879	3,215	3,225	3,402	3,473	3,609	3,353	3,408	3,449	3,682	2,966	...
Indonesia	621	662	729	762	453	476	520	481	452	472	499	436	261
Iran	*17*	50[h]	105[h]	72	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Japan	258	508	762	939	1,215	1,614	1,562	1,338	1,373	1,618	2,126	...	...
Pakistan	147	214	260	357	543	1,145	487	960	1,084	1,161	1,374	...	...
Philippines	398	347	335	386	347	401	407	363	387	404	449	...	...
Thailand	151	107	112	156	73	41	39	40	42	40	41	38	33

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a. Railway traffic coverage: *China* (Taiwan), Taiwan Railway Administration; *India* and *Pakistan*, class I railways; *Japan*, State Railways only; *Philippines*, Manila Railroad Company.

b. From August 1954, Republic of Viet Nam only.

c. Including service traffic.

d. Caspian Sea traffic included.

e. Excluding military and charity goods and transit traffic, including imports and exports by air and parcel post, and prior to 1955, including also trade in ships delivered as goods without being loaded on other ships.

f. Total number of entrances and clearances made during each voyage but excluding sailing vessels.

g. Scheduled domestic and international routes.

h. Including non-scheduled and/or non-revenue operations.

6. VALUE OF EXPORTS AND IMPORTS AND BALANCE OF TRADE

Monthly averages or calendar months

Millions

	BRUNEI (*Malayan dollar*)			BURMA (*kyat*)			CAMBODIA (*riel*)			CEYLON (*rupee*)			CHINA (Taiwan) (*NT dollar*)			FEDERATION OF MALAYA[a] (*Malayan dollar*)		
	Exports	Imports	Balance	Exports	Imports	Balance	Exports	Imports	Balance	Exports	Imports	Balance	Exports	Imports	ICA imports	Exports	Imports	Balance
	22.8	8.3	+14.5	100	81	+19	184	172	+12	151	116	+35	121	275	125	135	110	+ 25
	25.3	8.7	+16.6	90	77	+13	117	139	−22	162	122	+40	160	262	127	198	129	+ 69
	27.5	9.5	+18.0	98	78	+20	107	165	−58	144	135	+ 9	244	400	166	188	146	+ 42
	28.3	9.0	+19.3	91	117	−26	151	170	−19	140	150	−10	306	438	172	182	151	+ 31
	27.2	7.4	+19.8	77	81	− 4	154	222	−68	142	143	− 1	322	467	138	157	138	+ 19
	25.8	5.2	+20.6	88	88	—	167	201	−34	146	167	−21	476	702	212	206	145	+ 61
IV	27.8	6.9	+20.9	66	74	− 8	142	186	−44	156	175	−19	274	561	143	171	141	+ 30
I	28.4	6.1	+22.3	72	81	− 9	104	184	−80	134	148	−14	567	548	146	175	126	+ 49
II	24.9	4.7	+20.2	85	77	+ 8	207	165	+42	143	145	− 2	568	762	237	185	137	+ 48
III	25.1	5.2	+19.9	111	86	+25	189	229	−40	146	215	−69	239	831	248	222	151	+ 71
IV	25.0	4.9	+20.1	85	108	−23	170	227	−57	161	184	−23	478	665	219	242	165	+ 77
Jan	...	...	...	*74*	*124*	*−50*	*201*	*270*	*−69*	177	174	+ 3	512	759	235	*244*	*166*	*+ 78*
Feb	...	...	...	*111*	*79*	*+32*	...	...	...	148	138	+10	405	459	69	*230*	*168*	*+ 62*

	HONG KONG (*HK dollar*)			INDIA (*rupee*)			INDONESIA[c] (*rupiah*)			IRAN[d] (*1,000 Mn rials*)			JAPAN[e] (*1,000 Mn yen*)			KOREA,[f] Republic of (*US dollar*)		
	Exports	Imports	Exports, domestic	Exports	Imports	Balance	Exports	Imports	Balance	Exports	Imports	Balance	Exports	Imports	Special procurement	Exports	Imports	Balance
	202	286	57	469	515	− 46	823	598	+225	1.02	1.88	−0.86	48.9	72.0	7.2	2.0	20.6	−18.6
	212	310	61	506	561	− 55	898	600	+298	1.46	2.25	−0.79	60.3	74.1	5.2	1.5	28.7	−27.2
	268	381	65	516	685	−169	851	817	+ 34	1.99	2.09	−0.10	75.0	96.9	5.0	2.1	32.4	−30.3
	252	429	62	547	890	−343	921	763	+158	2.30	2.62	−0.32	85.7	128.5	6.9	1.9	37.2	−35.3
	249	383	105[b]	482	720	−238	718	488	+230	*0.64*	*2.67*	*−2.03*	86.3	91.0	4.3	1.4	31.5	−30.1
	273	412	190	521	724	−203	829	436	+393	...	...	...	103.7	108.0	4.7	1.6	23.6	−22.0
IV	285	429	114	527	705	−178	840	484	+356	*0.87*	*2.94*	*−2.07*	95.7	86.5	2.3	1.9	28.1	−26.2
I	221	334	151	448	749	−301	596	335	+261	*0.64*	*2.74*	*−2.10*	87.4	94.8	1.8	1.1	23.7	−22.6
II	271	407	191	439	818	−379	1,041	427	+614	*0.39*	*3.22*	*−2.83*	97.4	113.6	9.7	2.4	20.7	−18.3
III	281	435	196	559	646	− 87	786	425	+361	*0.37*	*2.28*	*−1.91*	106.0	108.3	5.0	1.6	26.6	−25.0
IV	320	474	222	637	682	− 45	915	556	+359	...	...	...	123.9	115.2	2.3	1.3	23.2	−21.9
Jan	307	453	218	520	625	−105	2,462	1,697	+765	...	...	...	78.4	119.2	4.0	1.1	17.4	−16.3
Feb	313	481	232	498	691	−193	3,148	1,478	+1,670	...	...	...	114.5	131.0	4.1	1.6	22.3	−20.7

	LAOS (*kip*)			NORTH BORNEO (*Malayan dollar*)			PAKISTAN (*rupee*)			PHILIPPINES[g] (*peso*)			SARAWAK (*Malayan dollar*)			SINGAPORE[a] (*Malayan dollar*)		
	Exports	Imports	Balance	Exports	Imports	Balance	Exports	Imports	Balance	Exports	Imports	Balance	Exports	Imports	Balance	Exports	Imports	Balance
54	3	47	− 44	6.4	6.2	+0.2	99	92	+ 7	66.8	79.8	−13.0	35.5	33.2	+ 2.3	224	252	−28
55	4	55	− 51	8.7	7.3	+1.4	125	90	+35	66.8	91.3	−24.5	39.8	36.8	+ 3.0	281	322	−41
56	4	103	− 99	10.1	9.8	+0.3	135	166	−31	75.5	84.4	− 8.9	40.6	38.7	+ 1.9	286	327	−41
57	3	122	−119	10.0	10.1	−0.1	134	174	−40	72.0	102.4	−30.4	41.6	38.6	+ 3.0	290	338	−48
58	5	87	− 82	10.9	10.7	+0.2	118	157	−39	82.2	93.7	−11.5	38.6	36.1	+ 2.5	262	312	−50
59	7	86	− 79	14.8	13.0	+1.8	127	140	−13	95.8	85.5	+10.3	44.4	37.9	+ 6.5	287	326	−39
58 IV	5	75	− 70	11.2	11.2	—	131	143	−12	88.6	101.7	−13.1	42.3	38.1	+ 4.2	259	297	−38
59 I	3	87	− 84	11.6	10.1	+1.5	116	137	−21	78.3	70.0	+ 8.3	44.7	36.6	+ 8.1	248	296	−48
II	8	78	− 70	14.0	13.7	+0.3	108	103	+ 5	101.4	86.2	+15.2	42.3	36.7	+ 5.6	286	325	−39
III	8	90	− 82	16.0	13.6	+2.4	113	145	−32	111.5	88.1	+23.4	*45.9*	*38.8*	*+ 7.1*	298	332	−34
IV	8	91	− 83	17.7	14.4	+3.3	172	175	− 3	92.1	97.6	− 5.5	*44.9*	*39.6*	*+ 5.3*	316	350	−34
60 Jan	...	...	...	...	...	...	198	206	− 8	...	...	...	...	...	...	*298*	*321*	*−23*
Feb	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	*290*	*363*	*−73*

	THAILAND (*baht*)			VIET-NAM[h] (*piastre*)		
	Exports	Imports	Balance	Exports	Imports	Balance
54	515	585	− 70	164	946	−782
55	593	625	− 32	201	768	−567
56	577	640	− 63	122	614	−492
57	628	711	− 83	232	842	−610
58	538	670	−132	159	677	−518
59	631	737	−106	219	655	−436
58 IV	473	641	−168	173	708	−535
59 I	615	649	− 34	136	541	−405
II	563	732	−169	170	652	−482
III	643	746	−103	256	646	−390
IV	703	819	−116	313	782	−469
60 Jan	698	788	− 90	231	454	−223
Feb	692	826	−134	175	706	−531

General Notes: Special trade system for Cambodia, China (Taiwan), Indonesia, Iran, Republic of Korea, Laos, North Borneo, Sarawak and Viet-Nam; general trade for other countries. Figures on import include aid unless otherwise specified.

a. Including movements between Federation of Malaya and Singapore.

b. For 1958 only, products wholly or principally of Hong Kong origin.

c. Data compiled and published in rupiah at the official rate. Beginning 25 August 1959, the exchange rate was fixed at 45 rupiah per US dollar and the system of export certificates previously in effect was abolished.

d. Years beginning 21 March. Including value of exchange certificates. From 1957, quarterly figures on exports exclude petroleum; for 1958 imports exclude "official" imports.

e. Data on Special procurement not included in trade statistics.

f. Prior to 1955, figures based on foreign exchange settlements at the Bank of Korea. From 1955 onwards, government imports are still based on exchange settlements, but exports and private imports are based on data of Bureau of Customs.

g. Imports valued f.o.b.

h. Prior to January 1955, excluding trade with Cambodia and Laos but including transit trade of these countries with other countries through Viet-Nam. Beginning June 1955, trade of the Republic of Viet-Nam only.

7. DIRECTION OF INTERNATIONAL TRADE

Quarterly averages or quarters

Million doll

Area of origin for imports and area of destination for exports	Year and Quarter	BURMA		CAMBODIA		CEYLON		CHINA (Taiwan)		FEDERATION OF MALAYA		HONG KONG		INDIA		INDONESIA	
		Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Im
1. All countries	1953	59.4	44.2	. . .	. . .	82.3	84.5	31.9	45.5	75.2	73.1	120.8	170.6	279.0	300.2	210.0	19
	1954	62.1	51.1	. . .	. . .	95.0	73.4	23.3	52.8	76.2	66.1	120.3	164.9	295.6	323.8	214.0	15
	1955	56.7	45.2	10.0	11.9	101.8	76.7	30.8	50.2	112.3	78.1	127.5	180.0	319.1	353.4	236.4	15
	1956	61.5	49.4	9.3	13.7	91.1	85.8	29.6	48.4	117.0	186.2	163.0	221.2	312.8	427.2	220.5	21
	1957	52.5	74.0	12.9	14.6	88.3	94.7	37.1	53.1	114.2	90.0	149.8	243.0	337.5	538.6	242.4	19
	1958	45.3	50.8	13.9	18.7	86.7	90.1	39.0	56.6	101.7	81.3	141.1	211.5	304.0	453.7	188.8	128
	IV	39.8	46.2	12.2	15.1	97.0	110.5	33.1	67.9	112.9	83.1	155.1	231.6	322.8	614.9	224.8	126
	1959	. . .	. . .	*14.4*	*16.5*	*88.8*	*105.3*	*39.2*	*57.8*	*136.4*	*83.3*	*157.3*	*229.8*	*327.0*	*465.9*	*218.1*	*114*
	I	44.7	51.9	8.9	14.2	81.6	93.2	46.8	45.2	115.7	71.0	131.1	191.5	280.1	409.1	156.9	88
	II	53.0	47.8	17.8	12.7	86.3	91.0	46.9	62.9	124.3	78.7	158.9	227.8	278.3	527.7	267.2	112
	III	*66.6*	*54.3*	16.2	19.6	89.5	135.0	23.7	68.5	147.6	86.7	159.5	238.5	352.2	457.4	209.2	111
	IV	. . .	. . .	*14.5*	*19.5*	*97.9*	*101.8*	*39.4*	*54.8*	*158.1*	*96.7*	*179.6*	*261.2*	*397.2*	*469.3*	*239.0*	*146*
2. ECAFE countries[a] (including Japan)	1953	45.0	22.9	. . .	. . .	16.3	34.8	20.7	17.5	13.5	35.2	90.0	93.4	53.3	40.4	71.8	78
	1954	52.1	26.3	. . .	. . .	18.6	32.0	18.2	20.7	13.9	31.9	72.5	76.1	46.6	60.7	85.2	64
	1955	40.4	21.5	4.3	7.4	13.7	32.7	24.4	18.0	16.0	38.6	69.0	91.7	56.0	59.6	79.7	47
	1956	45.4	22.6	3.3	8.8	15.9	30.4	20.4	19.7	20.6	42.5	93.1	115.6	53.2	62.1	96.0	77
	1957	39.0	35.2	5.3	8.3	13.3	37.8	25.5	20.6	28.1	43.3	75.8	120.7	53.5	67.9	105.5	68
	1958	34.1	26.0	4.9	9.5	8.5	35.0	26.8	25.2	26.2	40.3	62.9	114.9	50.9	68.8	88.2	51
	IV	28.7	26.2	2.0	6.9	13.0	42.3	24.2	28.9	24.5	42.3	74.4	134.3	58.9	90.4	114.5	56
	1959	. . .	. . .	*4.9*	*8.6*	*9.8*	*38.0*	*25.9*	*24.8*	*34.6*	*41.8*	*57.7*	*119.8*	*59.7*	*53.3*	*91.5*	*49*
	I	29.9	25.7	3.0	6.0	8.5	32.3	35.7	18.9	23.6	34.7	47.3	97.4	46.3	52.2	73.5	35.
	II	33.6	24.4	6.1	6.0	9.5	30.1	27.7	29.5	34.7	37.0	56.5	113.9	57.1	48.7	110.1	51.
	III	*52.5*	*29.0*	3.8	12.3	10.3	50.3	14.0	32.1	39.8	44.2	56.9	126.0	68.3	50.1	91.3	41.
	IV	. . .	. . .	*6.7*	*10.1*	*11.0*	*41.4*	*26.2*	*18.5*	*40.4*	*51.5*	*67.3*	*130.8*	*67.0*	*62.2*	*90.9*	*70.*
3. Japan	1953	11.2	7.3	. . .	. . .	0.5	3.6	14.5	13.5	5.0	1.9	9.7	16.8	14.2	6.5	9.4	31.
	1954	14.6	11.2	. . .	. . .	0.8	4.0	11.9	17.6	5.3	2.2	5.0	20.3	8.6	8.8	12.5	34.
	1955	11.4	9.6	0.1	1.2	0.6	5.2	18.3	15.3	7.3	3.6	6.4	23.0	13.8	16.9	18.3	21.
	1956	9.4	8.2	0.4	2.6	0.8	6.0	11.0	17.6	9.8	3.8	13.9	35.5	15.7	22.9	18.4	33.
	1957	5.9	17.7	0.3	2.4	1.4	6.8	13.1	17.6	14.4	3.6	10.0	33.4	14.4	28.6	10.0	30.
	1958	2.5	12.2	0.1	3.3	2.0	8.2	16.3	22.4	13.4	3.2	5.2	26.1	13.6	20.8	6.8	17.
	IV	1.3	9.3	—	2.1	3.2	10.5	16.0	25.5	16.3	3.4	6.9	27.1	11.2	26.9	8.1	15.
	1959	. . .	. . .	*0.6*	*2.2*	*2.2*	*7.7*	*14.9*	*23.4*	*24.6*	*4.4*	*10.1*	*33.7*	*18.1*	*21.5*	[illegible]	*17.*
	I	3.5	10.0	—	1.8	2.6	9.5	25.7	16.2	16.0	3.9	6.7	25.7	16.5	25.7	7.4	12.
	II	2.0	12.3	0.3	1.3	2.3	6.0	16.2	25.8	23.8	3.8	11.0	33.7	18.2	26.5	10.2	18.
	III	*1.3*	*10.1*	0.6	3.8	2.1	6.2	3.9	28.4	28.9	4.9	10.4	35.1	20.0	13.5	5.1	16.
	IV	. . .	. . .	*1.5*	*2.0*	*1.8*	*9.2*	*13.8*	*23.0*	*29.6*	*5.2*	*12.3*	*40.2*	*17.6*	*20.3*	[illegible]	*21.*
4. Western Europe (including UK)	1953	6.4	16.9	. . .	. . .	30.4	27.3	3.9	6.3	36.3	28.3	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	127.8	74.2	65.
	1954	5.4	20.2	. . .	. . .	34.8	24.2	1.4	4.5	37.2	27.2	10.5	41.4	[illegible]	144.0	71.6	52.0
	1955	8.8	18.8	3.1	3.7	38.8	26.6	1.7	3.5	53.3	31.4	15.0	41.6	126.6	[illegible]	79.3	60.
	1956	7.6	18.9	3.1	3.0	35.8	30.2	1.8	4.5	54.8	36.4	18.6	46.9	130.6	219.6	80.8	75.
	1957	4.9	27.2	3.3	4.4	31.6	29.2	1.3	4.9	50.0	36.5	20.7	61.2	119.3	265.6	73.0	73.
	1958	4.4	17.1	3.8	7.3	37.8	30.4	1.5	4.9	42.8	31.9	24.9	46.9	116.2	190.9	47.4	42.
	IV	6.1	13.6	4.5	6.8	37.5	36.0	0.6	6.2	39.2	32.2	27.8	50.3	134.9	215.6	50.8	39.
	1959	. . .	. . .	*4.9*	*5.8*	*36.4*	*35.9*	*2.2*	*5.7*	*50.4*	*32.5*	*29.6*	*50.5*	*122.9*	*206.9*	[illegible]	*33.*
	I	8.3	16.5	2.3	6.7	32.2	33.1	1.2	3.5	46.3	26.7	25.6	40.7	103.8	188.6	52.0	29.2
	II	7.0	16.4	6.6	5.1	49.7	42.6	1.6	5.0	41.4	31.7	29.9	52.7	101.2	233.8	76.4	27.8
	III	*8.4*	*17.7*	5.0	5.1	23.7	29.4	2.7	7.6	53.2	33.5	29.4	53.8	132.0	198.8	70.0	38.0
	IV	. . .	. . .	*5.6*	*6.5*	*40.0*	*38.7*	*3.4*	*6.5*	*60.6*	*36.0*	*34.0*	*55.8*	*154.5*	*206.3*	[illegible]	*41.*
5. United Kingdom	1953	4.4	11.8	. . .	. . .	20.4	19.0	2.1	2.0	18.5	23.1	5.2	20.8	78.5	74.2	4.4	13.5
	1954	3.9	12.5	. . .	. . .	26.4	15.4	0.7	1.3	14.9	21.3	7.1	16.2	93.1	79.2	9.8	8.5
	1955	4.8	11.5	0.2	0.1	26.5	15.2	0.9	0.6	23.5	24.1	11.0	18.3	[illegible]	[illegible]	23.0	8.7
	1956	4.6	10.4	0.1	0.2	26.3	19.3	0.7	0.8	23.2	27.2	13.0	22.4	96.7	109.1	12.6	12.9
	1957	3.2	15.7	—	0.2	24.1	19.4	0.3	0.8	24.6	26.8	14.7	29.2	84.5	125.2	11.6	11.4
	1958	3.4	9.4	0.1	0.4	29.7	21.8	0.2	1.0	20.7	24.5	17.2	23.2	87.3	88.5	24.0	6.8
	IV	4.3	7.6	—	0.3	26.2	27.6	0.1	1.5	15.9	24.4	19.1	24.6	105.4	98.8	20.2	7.1
	1959	. . .	. . .	—	*0.2*	*25.2*	*26.0*	*0.4*	*0.9*	*19.2*	*21.4*	*20.2*	*25.1*	*90.4*	*90.7*	[illegible]	*7.*
	I	5.0	9.8	—	0.2	21.6	23.4	0.2	0.5	17.2	19.6	18.0	21.6	71.4	76.5	35.4	6.2
	II	3.4	9.4	—	0.1	35.1	29.5	0.3	1.2	14.8	21.7	20.6	25.2	68.8	96.2	49.8	6.0
	III	*4.7*	*10.2*	—	0.2	16.7	21.8	0.4	0.9	24.1	22.5	19.5	26.2	98.1	94.7	47.5	7.9
	IV	. . .	. . .	—	*0.2*	*27.3*	*29.4*	*0.8*	*0.9*	*20.6*	*21.9*	*22.8*	*27.4*	*123.3*	*95.3*	*58.2*	*10.3*
6. Eastern Europe	1953	—	0.2	. . .	. . .	0.2	0.6	—	—	1.5	0.2	—	1.0	1.8	2.0	1.1	1.4
	1954	0.2	0.6	. . .	. . .	0.1	0.6	—	—	1.9	0.2	—	1.0	2.8	4.0	1.8	3.3
	1955	5.6	0.4	—	—	0.1	0.4	—	—	2.1	0.2	—	0.8	2.2	4.2	6.7	7.2
	1956	5.6	3.8	—	—	0.1	0.4	—	—	4.7	0.3	—	0.8	9.1	13.8	3.0	2.8
	1957	4.4	5.2	—	—	0.3	0.4	—	—	3.4	0.4	—	0.6	12.6	19.8	2.2	1.6
	1958	2.8	3.4	—	0.2	0.3	0.4	—	—	9.6	0.2	—	0.4	16.0	17.7	2.7	1.0
	IV	1.8	3.0	—	0.7	0.4	0.5	—	—	21.7	0.2	—	0.3	18.8	19.2	0.6	1.2
	1959	. . .	. . .	*0.2*	*0.4*	*1.7*	*1.2*	—	—	*18.8*	*0.2*	—	*0.5*	*22.6*	*16.2*	*5.0*	*1.9*
	I	1.2	2.7	—	0.3	2.9	2.1	—	—	16.5	0.1	0.1	0.3	15.4	12.2	0.9	0.7
	II	6.6	2.9	—	0.3	2.8	1.6	—	—	18.1	0.3	—	0.4	22.4	18.1	2.8	3.0
	III	*1.2*	*2.1*	0.7	0.5	0.3	0.5	—	—	20.0	0.2	—	0.8	21.9	16.4	7.5	2.0
	IV	. . .	. . .	*0.1*	*0.3*	*0.7*	*0.6*	—	—	*20.5*	*0.4*		*0.7*	[illegible]	*13.0*	*8.8*	*1.8*

7. DIRECTION OF INTERNATIONAL TRADE *(Cont'd)*

Quarterly averages or quarters

Million dollars

f origin ports area ination ports	Year and Quarter	BURMA		CAMBODIA		CEYLON		CHINA (Taiwan)		FEDERATION OF MALAYA		HONG KONG		INDIA		INDONESIA[b]	
		Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.
7. a	1953	1.1	1.8	. . .	. . .	10.8	3.6	1.4	19.4	21.0	2.2	4.3	12.5	58.6	57.0	48.4	35.1
	1954	0.3	2.1	. . .	. . .	10.2	2.6	1.3	25.3	18.7	1.5	5.0	14.8	54.2	44.2	36.6	23.0
	1955	0.3	1.4	2.6	0.7	14.5	5.4	1.4	24.6	29.7	1.7	6.4	16.3	61.1	52.2	49.9	24.2
	1956	0.4	1.4	2.5	1.5	12.8	4.2	1.7	20.6	31.7	2.1	7.8	20.6	58.0	53.6	36.2	35.6
	1957	0.9	3.0	2.6	0.8	12.5	4.4	1.4	21.6	26.2	2.5	12.0	25.8	81.3	97.2	37.8	33.7
	1958	0.4	2.2	3.7	1.7	11.6	5.3	2.5	21.6	17.7	1.8	20.6	21.4	61.2	103.4	33.1	20.6
	IV	0.6	1.4	4.7	1.1	13.9	10.3	3.0	25.0	21.9	1.5	24.1	19.8	55.4	211.3	39.4	20.1
	1959	. . .	. . .	*3.5*	*1.2*	*13.5*	*8.2*	*3.6*	*21.2*	*24.9*	*2.1*	*31.3*	*26.1*	*60.4*	*115.3*	*36.0*	*18.8*
	I	0.8	2.9	3.5	1.0	12.7	3.9	2.1	17.2	22.9	1.9	23.7	19.6	60.6	89.2	21.7	12.4
	II	0.4	2.4	2.5	1.2	12.9	7.6	3.4	24.9	23.2	2.4	33.9	27.9	54.9	156.6	50.5	21.6
	III	*0.4*	*1.5*	6.0	1.7	12.9	11.3	4.2	24.6	26.2	2.1	36.3	27.3	63.5	124.7	30.2	18.5
	IV	. . .	. . .	*2.0*	*1.0*	*17.0*	*10.2*	*4.7*	*17.9*	*27.3*	*2.0*	*37.9*	*30.3*	*62.4*	*90.8*	*43.5*	*22.7*
8. States erica	1953	1.1	1.8	. . .	. . .	6.4	2.7	1.3	17.9	19.0	2.0	3.3	9.9	51.2	47.2	43.0	34.8
	1954	0.3	2.1	. . .	. . .	6.2	1.9	1.3	24.6	16.4	1.3	4.1	12.4	46.2	38.8	35.9	22.7
	1955	0.3	1.3	2.6	0.6	9.3	2.4	1.4	23.9	26.7	1.5	5.2	14.3	48.7	47.2	41.8	23.9
	1956	0.4	1.4	2.4	1.4	7.4	2.1	1.7	20.4	28.2	1.8	6.5	18.6	46.0	49.5	35.3	35.3
	1957	0.6	2.9	2.5	0.8	7.8	3.6	1.3	21.2	23.1	2.2	10.0	23.6	69.3	89.4	36.9	33.3
	1958	0.4	2.2	3.7	1.7	7.1	4.0	2.4	21.1	15.2	1.6	15.6	19.2	48.9	84.8	32.6	20.4
	IV	0.6	1.4	4.7	1.1	8.8	7.3	2.9	24.7	19.6	1.3	18.3	17.6	43.3	165.7	39.0	20.1
	1959	. . .	. . .	*3.5*	*1.2*	*8.6*	*7.2*	*3.4*	*20.9*	*21.9*	*1.8*	*25.8*	*22.6*	*50.1*	*102.6*	*35.7*	*18.4*
	I	0.8	2.4	3.5	0.9	8.9	3.5	2.0	16.8	20.3	1.6	19.1	17.2	51.1	80.4	21.1	12.3
	II	0.4	2.4	2.5	1.2	7.9	7.2	3.2	24.7	20.8	2.1	27.4	25.5	46.6	145.9	49.4	21.4
	III	*0.4*	*1.5*	6.0	1.4	7.7	8.9	4.0	24.3	23.0	1.8	29.1	23.0	51.1	109.0	29.8	18.0
	IV	. . .	. . .	*2.0*	*1.0*	*9.9*	*9.3*	*4.4*	*17.7*	*23.4*	*1.8*	*31.6*	*25.5*	*51.6*	*75.1*	*42.9*	*21.8*
9. an ics	1953	—	—	. . .	. . .	0.4	—	0.4	0.1	1.4	—	—	0.4	16.1	1.5	0.4	0.2
	1954	—	—	. . .	. . .	0.2	—	0.3	0.2	1.8	—	—	5.0	12.2	4.8	1.4	—
	1955	—	0.2	—	0.1	0.5	2.4	0.1	0.1	2.6	—	—	1.0	11.8	3.0	6.6	0.1
	1956	—	—	—	0.1	0.7	1.7	0.1	—	1.7	0.1	0.1	2.5	8.6	1.3	0.6	2.1
	1957	—	—	—	—	1.0	—	0.1	0.1	3.4	0.1	1.1	1.1	11.4	1.3	0.8	0.1
	1958	—	—	—	—	0.5	—	0.2	0.1	1.7	0.1	1.1	0.8	10.4	0.9	0.6	—
	IV	—	—	—	—	0.3	—	—	—	1.5	0.1	1.1	1.0	8.7	2.2	0.5	—
	1959	. . .	. . .	—	*0.1*	*0.4*	—	—	—	*3.0*	*0.1*	*3.0*	*1.4*	*8.0*	*1.3*	*0.3*	*1.1*
	I	—	—	—	—	0.3	—	—	—	2.5	—	2.1	1.1	3.8	0.6	0.3	3.2
	II	—	—	—	—	0.4	—	—	—	2.6	0.1	2.9	0.7	4.6	1.1	—	0.1
	III	—	—	—	0.3	0.7	—	—	—	3.1	0.1	3.4	2.6	14.6	1.5	0.3	0.4
	IV	. . .	. . .	—	*0.1*	*0.4*	—	—	—	*3.7*	—	*3.6*	*1.2*	*9.1*	*2.1*	*0.6*	*0.7*
10. ia	1953	—	1.1	. . .	. . .	8.7	9.2	0.2	0.6	0.8	6.6	2.1	2.5	10.2	14.5	6.0	4.4
	1954	—	1.0	. . .	. . .	11.2	5.6	0.1	0.6	1.5	4.3	3.0	2.8	14.6	8.7	8.6	3.2
	1955	—	1.3	—	—	10.2	4.6	—	0.2	1.9	4.5	3.6	3.7	16.7	11.2	6.3	3.1
	1956	—	1.6	—	—	7.3	5.0	—	0.5	1.6	4.9	3.8	4.8	14.8	7.3	9.4	4.6
	1957	—	1.7	—	—	6.9	5.7	—	0.3	1.5	5.4	4.5	5.2	16.6	10.2	12.1	4.6
	1958	0.1	1.2	—	—	7.9	3.0	0.1	0.6	2.1	5.0	5.0	5.2	14.7	8.6	12.2	1.7
	IV	0.1	1.0	—	—	8.1	4.0	—	0.8	2.6	5.0	5.2	7.0	13.1	6.7	12.4	1.0
	1959	. . .	. . .	—	—	*7.6*	*5.1*	*0.1*	*0.6*	*3.2*	*5.0*	*5.2*	*6.1*	*13.0*	*6.8*	*8.5*	*2.1*
	I	—	1.5	—	—	6.4	5.2	—	0.2	2.6	5.2	3.9	4.7	11.7	6.0	3.7	1.1
	II	—	1.5	—	—	6.3	3.2	0.1	0.5	2.6	4.5	5.2	6.9	11.3	9.4	20.0	1.8
	III	—	*1.8*	—	—	9.7	4.1	—	0.4	3.7	4.9	6.7	7.1	16.5	5.7	5.4	2.8
	IV	. . .	. . .	—	—	*7.9*	*7.8*	*0.1*	*1.1*	*4.0*	*5.2*	*5.8*	*5.8*	*12.6*	*6.1*	*4.6*	*2.7*
11. g area	1953	34.0	28.2	. . .	. . .	39.1	53.5	8.3	6.4	24.5	39.3	32.2	45.4	146.9	145.1	67.8	63.0
	1954	38.8	28.1	. . .	. . .	52.6	42.6	5.7	4.3	22.7	24.5	36.2	36.6	167.7	162.5	84.3	45.2
	1955	27.4	23.4	1.6	2.8	54.5	45.3	5.0	2.5	34.9	38.6	42.5	42.4	164.9	162.3	84.9	47.5
	1956	29.1	19.6	2.2	4.3	48.3	46.8	8.3	3.1	32.7	42.8	46.1	48.0	164.1	172.4	84.1	61.0
	1957	32.7	31.9	4.1	4.8	45.8	51.8	11.7	8.4	34.1	42.2	48.6	55.6	157.3	192.0	108.2	57.3
	1958	29.5	20.0	4.3	4.1	46.5	46.0	8.6	7.3	29.2	40.0	50.8	45.1	154.3	161.2	95.6	32.3
	IV	25.3	18.6	1.9	2.9	43.8	58.8	5.4	9.8	24.5	41.7	57.4	51.0	181.5	183.5	115.5	37.3
	1959	. . .	. . .	*3.9*	*4.6*	*41.8*	*57.1*	*8.5*	*6.7*	*29.4*	*37.6*	*56.0*	*55.5*	*152.0*	*144.3*	*118.3*	*31.0*
	I	20.2	22.1	2.7	3.3	36.5	47.2	7.5	6.8	24.9	34.8	49.5	47.1	133.7	127.8	89.7	26.3
	II	24.3	20.9	5.4	3.0	41.4	47.2	10.1	6.0	24.2	35.4	56.0	55.9	125.8	147.4	142.4	30.8
	III	*55.6*	*25.6*	2.9	6.5	44.6	68.0	8.0	6.5	35.8	41.1	55.2	60.2	167.1	149.9	120.0	31.2
	IV	. . .	. . .	*4.7*	*5.4*	*45.5*	*66.1*	*8.2*	*7.3*	*32.5*	*38.9*	*65.1*	*61.3*	*181.4*	*152.0*	*121.3*	*35.8*
12. E g ies[a]	1953	26.1	14.9	. . .	. . .	3.1	19.6	5.5	3.7	4.8	9.3	20.1	18.5	32.4	32.5	56.0	39.6
	1954	31.9	14.4	. . .	. . .	6.0	18.5	4.8	2.4	5.4	6.7	19.4	14.3	31.2	49.1	65.3	23.6
	1955	21.4	10.6	1.4	2.7	6.4	22.1	3.7	1.6	4.9	8.7	20.6	16.2	31.8	40.0	54.5	21.4
	1956	25.3	7.6	2.2	4.1	5.2	21.2	6.7	1.8	6.1	9.1	21.6	16.7	28.1	31.2	55.6	29.2
	1957	26.0	13.7	4.1	4.6	3.1	23.6	7.8	2.2	6.4	8.6	21.7	15.4	29.4	31.8	78.1	25.2
	1958	24.0	9.2	4.2	3.7	2.5	18.2	6.6	2.2	5.0	9.0	21.4	11.2	29.2	20.4	59.5	17.2
	IV	19.0	10.0	1.9	2.6	2.7	23.9	4.5	2.6	4.9	10.3	25.0	13.1	38.1	51.5	72.9	23.2
	1959	. . .	. . .	*3.8*	*4.4*	*3.5*	*21.9*	*6.7*	*3.1*	*5.6*	*9.9*	*22.5*	*17.8*	*29.9*	*23.8*	*62.0*	*16.0*
	I	13.4	10.3	2.7	3.1	3.7	14.1	5.7	1.8	4.1	8.3	19.8	14.0	22.3	18.5	50.4	13.3
	II	18.8	9.8	5.3	2.9	3.0	17.7	8.0	2.1	5.4	7.8	22.2	17.9	31.0	19.1	72.4	17.7
	III	*47.1*	*12.8*	3.0	6.3	3.7	33.9	6.5	2.6	6.3	12.2	21.8	20.7	31.3	29.7	67.0	12.1
	IV	. . .	. . .	*4.2*	*5.3*	*3.8*	*24.0*	*6.6*	*5.7*	*6.6*	*11.3*	*26.1*	*18.6*	*35.1*	*27.8*	*58.2*	*20.8*

GENERAL NOTES: (1) As complete breakdowns are not given, the sum of total trade of any individual country with different regions does not add up to the total given under trade with "all countries".
(2) See general note to table 6.
(3) Trade between the Federation of Malaya and Singapore is excluded.

[a] ECAFE countries comprise:
i) Sterling countries — Brunei, Burma, Ceylon, Federation of Malaya, Hong Kong, India, North Borneo, Pakistan, Sarawak and Singapore.
ii) Non-sterling countries — Afghanistan, Cambodia, China, Indonesia, Japan, Korea, Laos, Philippines, Thailand and Viet-Nam.

7. DIRECTION OF INTERNATIONAL TRADE *(Cont'd)*

Quarterly averages or quarters

Million doll

Area of origin for imports and area of destination for exports	Year and Quarter	JAPAN		KOREA, Republic of		LAOS		PAKISTAN		PHILIPPINES		SINGAPORE		THAILAND[c]		VIET-NAM	
		Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.[c]	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.[e]	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Im
1. All countries	1953	318.7	602.4	9.9	66.9	...	...	109.7	87.5	101.0	114.2	171.3	191.4	87.1	75.8	...	.
	1954	407.3	599.8	6.1	55.4	...	...	89.7	81.2	101.3	120.7	177.8	190.3	73.0	67.8	...	.
	1955	502.7	617.9	4.5	85.0	0.4	4.7	100.2	72.3	100.2	136.9	227.2	234.0	90.8	75.0	17.2	65
	1956	625.2	807.4	6.2	96.6	0.3	8.8	85.0	104.1	112.8	126.6	223.2	253.1	83.6	92.4	11.3	54
	1957	714.6	1,071.0	5.6	110.0	0.3	10.4	84.2	110.0	107.9	153.6	226.5	267.7	91.2	103.2	19.9	72
	1958	719.2	758.4	4.1	94.6	0.4	6.8	74.4	99.1	123.3	140.5	202.6	253.2	77.2	96.1	13.8	58
	IV	797.5	721.8	5.8	78.6	0.3	4.0	82.5	89.9	137.1	152.5	199.1	243.9	67.3	91.2	15.1	60
	1959	*864.1*	*899.8*	*4.8*	*69.8*	*0.5*	*6.8*	*74.2*	*88.3*	...	...	*222.2*	*253.6*	*89.8*	*104.9*	*18.8*	*5*
	I	729.0	790.0	3.2	71.0	*0.4*	*3.3*	73.7	86.2	117.4	105.1	191.1	234.8	87.8	92.6	11.7	46
	II	811.7	946.5	7.3	62.1	*0.5*	*4.0*	43.4	65.2	152.0	129.3	222.6	261.9	80.1	104.2	14.6	55
	III	883.3	902.2	4.8	77.6	*0.6*	*8.7*	*71.3*	*91.6*	167.3	132.2	230.5	254.9	91.3	106.0	21.9	55
	IV	*1,032.5*	*960.8*	*3.9*	*68.3*	*0.6*	*11.1*	*108.4*	*110.0*	...	...	*244.7*	*263.0*	*100.2*	*116.6*	*26.9*	[illegible]
2. ECAFE countries[a] (including Japan)	1953	139.1	160.3	2.2	30.8	...	...	36.9	11.9	13.4	11.7	63.9	118.1	63.5	35.0	...	.
	1954	167.7	133.5	2.5	27.2	...	...	26.4	15.4	14.4	17.6	59.5	115.6	50.0	32.8	...	.
	1955	174.3	177.2	2.8	9.1	0.3	2.9	36.7	15.7	16.8	25.5	70.6	151.5	53.8	36.2	5.6	17
	1956	217.9	191.0	2.6	4.9	0.3	5.5	29.7	11.1	22.8	26.2	82.0	159.1	51.2	46.8	1.4	19
	1957	240.6	202.7	3.8	5.5	0.2	6.1	26.8	21.8	22.7	35.7	92.7	165.7	58.5	48.0	3.9	24
	1958	214.3	153.4	2.8	5.4	0.2	3.7	16.4	22.1	27.0	33.9	89.8	161.8	46.4	48.6	4.3	19
	IV	219.8	152.0	4.4	7.3	0.1	2.2	16.7	24.4	36.6	38.1	75.7	161.0	35.9	48.2	1.6	19
	1959	*229.4*	*186.4*	*3.5*	*14.0*	*0.5*	*2.3*	*18.6*	*16.3*	...	...	*80.6*	*174.3*	*48.7*	*50.7*	*3.3*	*19*
	I	205.2	153.2	2.7	12.6	*0.3*	*2.5*	16.6	14.9	27.7	31.7	66.5	155.4	45.5	50.2	3.2	15
	II	213.8	199.8	5.4	17.4	*0.5*	*2.0*	12.2	10.1	41.7	40.5	76.6	179.9	46.5	47.0	5.2	19
	III	218.8	188.8	3.7	11.6	*0.6*	*2.4*	*20.5*	*16.1*	45.2	37.0	79.9	167.2	46.0	47.6	2.4	20
	IV	*279.6*	*202.8*	[illegible]	*11.4*	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	...	...	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
3. Japan	1953	.	.	1.5	26.7	...	...	21.4	4.5	12.0	5.1	7.9	8.6	21.2	13.1	...	.
	1954	.	.	1.8	17.2	...	...	7.8	8.7	12.6	7.3	8.2	9.8	17.3	16.3	...	.
	1955	.	.	1.8	4.2	—	0.4	11.6	10.2	15.2	10.8	16.2	15.9	15.8	15.8	0.4	8
	1956	.	.	2.0	2.3	—	1.4	10.6	5.2	20.1	12.8	17.6	17.2	7.2	15.2	0.1	14
	1957	.	.	2.7	2.9	—	2.3	11.0	4.0	19.5	18.4	19.9	18.4	7.2	21.1	1.0	15
	1958	.	.	2.4	3.6	—	1.1	7.5	5.6	24.2	20.3	15.4	22.0	5.8	22.5	0.2	11
	IV	.	.	3.7	4.9	—	0.4	8.9	5.0	32.5	22.6	15.9	18.5	7.8	21.7	0.2	11
	1959	.	.	*3.2*	*8.0*	—	*0.4*	*6.0*	*5.1*	...	...	*16.0*	*19.9*	*10.5*	*26.5*	*0.5*	*11*
	I	.	.	2.6	7.8	—	*0.3*	7.0	4.7	23.9	15.9	14.9	20.3	5.9	26.3	0.1	8
	II	.	.	5.3	10.7	—	*0.2*	4.8	2.7	36.5	24.5	17.1	19.4	11.9	26.0	0.9	11
	III	.	.	3.1	5.1	—	*0.7*	*6.8*	*6.0*	41.7	22.3	15.3	19.2	7.1	23.2	0.3	13
	IV	.	.	*1.9*	*8.3*	—	*0.4*	*5.5*	*7.1*	...	...	*16.6*	*20.6*	*17.1*	*30.4*	*0.7*	*14*
4. Western Europe (including UK)	1953	28.9	50.8	0.1	4.2	...	...	53.6	25.4	13.8	5.8	44.4	44.3	3.3	24.7	...	.
	1954	36.9	49.2	0.1	4.4	...	...	43.4	39.2	20.2	10.7	52.2	45.1	6.4	22.7	...	.
	1955	49.0	43.8	0.3	5.9	—	1.4	42.2	31.4	18.1	12.4	78.3	50.8	7.5	24.4	5.9	35
	1956	63.7	58.0	0.9	3.7	—	2.3	39.0	29.6	23.5	16.3	73.5	55.9	8.1	28.4	7.7	17
	1957	79.6	97.5	0.8	2.0	0.1	2.8	37.8	42.8	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	60.4	[illegible]	[illegible]	10.5	30
	1958	82.3	65.9	0.6	3.6	0.1	2.1	39.6	38.8	23.3	18.6	54.1	52.7	11.3	27.9	7.9	23
	IV	114.6	62.6	0.2	3.5	0.1	1.1	44.5	41.6	29.6	19.2	50.7	52.6	9.1	27.2	9.8	25
	1959	*89.1*	*87.3*	*0.6*	*15.6*	—	*4.2*	*31.4*	*35.8*	...	...	*60.6*	*46.6*	*8.4*	*32.5*	*10.7*	*18*
	I	79.4	76.5	0.2	12.4	—	*0.6*	32.5	36.0	16.1	16.6	49.1	42.8	8.5	24.4	6.2	18
	II	71.6	99.9	0.8	15.6	—	*1.9*	16.4	26.2	16.2	21.0	64.2	52.2	7.9	32.7	7.1	18
	III	99.6	87.5	0.4	12.9	—	*6.0*	*27.4*	*33.6*	27.8	22.2	60.5	48.2	7.0	38.7	11.6	18
	IV	*105.6*	*85.4*	*0.9*	*21.6*	—	*8.3*	*49.1*	*47.5*	...	...	*68.7*	*43.0*	*10.1*	*34.5*	*17.8*	*21*
5. United Kingdom	1953	8.3	12.2	0.1	0.6	...	...	21.1	14.4	1.3	1.1	21.1	31.0	0.6	10.0	...	.
	1954	12.8	9.3	0.1	1.5	...	...	17.4	23.2	1.2	2.3	22.1	27.8	1.8	8.1	...	.
	1955	15.2	9.5	—	1.1	—	0.1	15.2	17.6	1.4	3.2	35.8	32.3	1.8	8.6	0.4	1
	1956	15.8	16.6	0.2	0.6	—	0.3	13.6	14.4	1.7	3.8	33.0	34.7	2.6	10.6	0.1	0
	1957	18.4	24.6	0.2	0.3	—	0.6	13.4	21.0	1.7	5.8	25.1	36.6	2.8	11.6	—	1
	1958	26.3	14.8	0.2	0.4	—	0.3	14.7	17.6	1.6	4.8	20.9	32.7	4.1	10.3	0.3	1
	IV	46.0	14.2	0.1	0.3	—	0.1	18.0	16.5	1.5	3.5	19.8	33.4	2.6	10.3	1.0	1
	1959	*25.8*	*25.9*	*0.2*	*2.0*	—	2.8	*13.7*	*13.1*	...	...	*22.4*	*26.5*	*2.7*	*10.8*	*0.6*	*1*
	I	26.6	21.3	0.1	1.6	—	*0.1*	13.8	13.1	2.2	4.3	19.7	24.6	3.1	8.7	0.7	0
	II	15.5	35.0	0.2	1.2	—	*1.1*	6.0	11.6	2.5	5.4	22.1	28.9	2.5	12.4	0.2	1
	III	28.0	24.4	0.3	1.9	—	*4.0*	*11.5*	*15.6*	2.5	5.6	23.6	27.4	2.1	10.0	0.3	1
	IV	*33.3*	*22.8*	*0.3*	*3.2*	—	*6.1*	*23.7*	*21.9*	...	...	*24.0*	*25.2*	*3.0*	*12.2*	*1.3*	*1*
6. Eastern Europe	1953	1.0	1.4	—	—	...	...	3.2	0.4	—	—	2.8	1.4	—	0.1	...	.
	1954	1.3	1.1	—	—	...	...	2.0	0.7	—	0.1	2.1	0.9	—	—	...	.
	1955	3.8	0.8	—	—	—	—	1.7	0.2	—	—	2.7	0.8	0.1	—	—	
	1956	0.6	0.8	—	—	—	—	1.3	0.4	—	—	6.3	1.0	—	0.5	—	0
	1957	3.9	4.6	—	—	—	—	2.8	0.9	—	—	8.3	1.1	—	0.8	—	
	1958	5.1	5.9	—	—	—	—	3.7	2.1	—	—	10.8	0.8	—	0.8	—	
	IV	6.8	9.9	—	—	—	—	4.2	1.3	—	—	20.6	0.5	*0.1*	0.5	—	
	1959	*9.6*	*11.0*	—	—	—	—	*2.7*	*1.2*	—	—	*19.6*	*0.8*	0.1	*0.8*	—	
	I	1.9	7.3	—	—	—	—	3.4	1.4	—	—	22.9	0.7	—	0.5	—	
	II	5.4	8.2	—	—	—	—	2.3	0.8	—	—	21.2	0.7	—	0.8	—	
	III	12.2	14.4	—	—	—	—	*1.8*	*1.5*	—	—	18.9	1.0	0.1	1.1	—	
	IV	*19.0*	*14.2*	—	—	—	—	*3.5*	*1.1*	—	—	*15.6*	*0.8*	*0.2*	*0.8*	—	

7. DIRECTION OF INTERNATIONAL TRADE (*Cont'd*)

Quarterly averages or quarters

Million dollars

origin ports area nation xports	Year and Quarter	JAPAN		KOREA, Republic of		LAOS		PAKISTAN		PHILIPPINES		SINGAPORE		THAILAND[c]		VIET-NAM[f]	
		Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.[c]	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.[e]	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.
/.	1953	65.2	242.4	7.6	27.8	...	...	7.4	4.2	69.6	90.6	24.1	10.3	17.7	14.6	...	...
	1954	83.2	266.0	3.5	23.0	...	...	6.1	6.2	62.4	85.4	25.3	11.9	14.0	11.5	...	...
a	1955	134.8	255.5	1.8	62.1	—	0.3	8.4	8.6	60.3	93.6	37.9	11.8	26.6	13.4	4.0	8.0
	1956	164.5	358.6	2.7	82.1	—	0.9	8.5	6.8	61.0	79.2	28.0	15.1	21.0	14.9	2.1	15.6
	1957	183.5	495.6	1.0	98.6	--	1.5	9.8	34.4	56.7	89.5	27.0	13.6	18.3	17.9	2.8	16.6
	1958	214.6	330.4	0.7	83.0	—	0.9	8.3	31.0	68.2	76.2	19.4	10.6	14.4	17.5	1.3	14.4
	IV	255.8	296.2	1.1	64.8	—	0.6	9.2	15.7	67.3	89.7	25.0	8.1	16.6	14.1	3.8	14.0
	1959	*315.6*	*372.4*	*0.5*	*37.4*	—	*0.2*	*8.8*	*25.7*	...	...	*30.0*	*11.2*	*22.2*	*18.0*	*1.6*	*15.1*
	I	245.5	343.4	0.4	44.9	—	*0.1*	10.8	28.9	71.6	53.2	26.1	12.8	24.0	15.3	2.1	10.9
	II	310.3	393.6	0.4	26.6	--	*0.2*	4.7	24.0	92.3	63.6	26.6	10.6	17.2	21.7	1.6	15.2
	III	344.3	378.4	0.7	51.5	—	0.3	[illegible]	[illegible]	90.0	64.4	37.2	11.0	30.3	18.3	1.0	14.5
	IV	362.3	374.2	[illegible]	[illegible]	—	0.2	[illegible]	[illegible]	...	...	*30.1*	*10.4*	*17.2*	*18.0*	*1.7*	*21.4*
8.	1953	58.5	189.4	7.6	24.0[d]	...	...	7.2	4.1	69.0	87.8	20.2	9.5	17.5	14.2	...	...
States	1954	70.7	211.3	3.5	21.9[d]	...	...	6.0	5.2	61.6	81.6	21.2	10.9	13.6	11.0	...	...
rica	1955	114.3	193.5	1.8	60.9[d]	—	0.3	7.7	8.0	60.0	89.0	32.4	10.7	26.2	12.8	4.0	7.9
	1956	137.9	266.8	2.7	81.2[d]	—	0.9	7.8	6.5	60.6	75.1	23.2	13.5	20.8	14.2	2.1	15.2
	1957	151.6	405.6	1.0	98.5[d]	--	1.5	9.6	30.1	56.2	81.3	22.4	11.4	18.1	16.9	2.8	16.4
	1958	173.1	264.4	0.7	82.5[d]	—	0.9	7.9	27.0	67.6	73.2	15.8	9.5	14.0	16.8	1.3	13.7
	IV	209.1	218.5	1.1	64.7[d]	—	0.6	8.5	11.9	67.0	85.2	22.7	7.4	16.5	13.2	3.7	13.4
	1959	*262.8*	*278.9*	*0.5*	35.5	—	*0.2*	*7.6*	*20.9*	...	...	*23.9*	*10.2*	*22.1*	*17.6*	*1.6*	*14.6*
	I	202.2	268.7	0.4	43.1	—	*0.1*	10.0	20.6	71.6	49.5	21.3	11.5	24.0	14.8	2.1	10.7
	II	254.4	292.8	0.4	24.5	*0.1*	*0.2*	4.2	22.7	92.3	60.9	19.8	9.6	17.1	20.8	1.6	14.6
	III	284.4	280.6	0.7	48.7	—	*0.3*	*5.6*	*21.4*	88.9	60.7	29.2	10.1	30.3	17.2	1.0	13.8
	IV	*310.1*	*273.4*	*0.6*	25.5	—	*0.2*	*10.6*	*16.0*	...	...	*25.1*	9.7	*17.1*	*17.5*	*1.7*	*19.4*
9.	1953	26.1	66.2	-	0.5	...	...	0.5	—	2.8	0.2	3.7	0.1	—	—	...	...
	1954	50.3	77.2	—	0.3	...	...	0.9	—	3.0	0.7	4.9	0.2	0.1	—	...	...
ican	1955	44.8	60.7	—	0.3	—	—	1.6	—	3.6	0.7	8.1	0.2	0.2	—	—	—
lics	1956	41.0	87.3	—	0.2	—	—	0.9	—	3.8	1.2	4.9	0.4	0.2	—	—	0.4
	1957	37.3	77.1	—	—	—	—	1.2	2.8	3.6	0.9	9.2	0.4	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2
	1958	48.4	64.7	—	—	—	—	0.8	0.4	2.6	1.2	5.6	0.3	—	0.1	—	0.6
	IV	51.0	71.1	—	—	—	—	1.3	0.1	2.5	1.9	4.4	0.1	—	—	0.1	0.6
	1959	*55.9*	*81.3*	—	*0.1*	—	—	*1.8*	—	...	...	*7.3*	*0.2*	*0.1*	—	—	*0.5*
	I	35.6	59.6	—	—	—	—	1.4	—	1.6	1.0	5.5	0.3	—	—	—	0.1
	II	50.3	83.0	—	0.1	—	—	0.7	—	0.7	1.5	7.5	0.2	—	—	—	0.6
	III	66.1	84.9	—	0.2	—	—	*2.9*	—	3.4	0.4	8.6	0.3	0.2	—	—	0.5
	IV	*71.6*	*97.7*	—	—	—	—	*2.4*	—	...	...	*7.6*	*0.1*	*0.1*	—	—	*0.8*
10.	1953	3.6	50.2	—	3.4	...	...	1.4	0.5	0.2	0.3	15.5	7.4	—	1.0	...	...
ia	1954	8.8	34.0	—	0.7	...	...	1.6	0.5	0.2	0.8	15.3	7.2	—	0.6	...	...
	1955	17.2	50.8	—	0.2	—	—	1.4	0.6	0.3	1.3	17.4	7.8	0.1	0.8	—	0.2
	1956	10.8	71.6	—	0.1	—	—	0.6	0.6	0.3	1.4	19.8	9.1	0.1	1.0	—	0.1
	1957	14.6	109.4	—	—	—	—	0.5	4.6	0.2	2.7	16.1	10.2	0.2	1.2	—	0.1
	1958	19.9	65.0	—	0.2	—	—	0.6	0.9	0.2	2.8	11.5	9.0	0.2	1.0	—	0.2
	IV	23.9	65.0	—	0.2	—	—	1.4	1.0	0.3	2.7	10.4	7.7	0.1	1.0	—	0.1
	1959	*25.5*	*84.8*	—	*2.0*	—	—	*1.7*	*0.9*	...	...	*13.0*	*9.5*	*0.4*	*1.0*	—	—
	I	17.4	71.3	—	0.9	—	—	1.4	1.1	0.2	1.9	9.7	9.5	0.4	0.9	—	—
	II	22.8	86.0	—	2.3	—	—	0.7	0.1	0.1	2.3	13.2	8.7	0.5	1.0	—	0.1
	III	29.3	82.9	—	0.9	—	—	*2.5*	*0.9*	0.2	3.3	14.9	10.9	0.5	1.2	—	0.1
	IV	*32.5*	*99.0*	—	*4.1*	—	—	*2.2*	*1.4*	...	...	*14.3*	*8.9*	*0.3*	*1.0*	—	—
11.	1953	79.0	150.6	0.8	7.4	...	...	37.0	23.4	2.3	6.0	67.3	71.8	39.9	30.3	...	...
ng area	1954	122.8	103.4	0.7	10.8	...	...	33.6	32.6	2.4	10.2	70.1	69.6	32.1	22.5	...	...
	1955	160.2	147.2	0.5	5.0	—	0.4	38.5	25.9	2.6	12.1	85.3	79.1	35.7	26.7	2.4	3.5
	1956	171.2	204.4	0.7	2.2	0.1	1.7	32.4	20.7	4.0	12.4	84.8	87.3	38.8	40.0	0.6	2.3
	1957	201.7	[illegible]	1.2	1.2	0.1	2.0	30.3	37.6	3.4	17.2	78.1	82.3	43.9	35.9	1.4	3.3
	1958	[illegible]	[illegible]	0.5	1.6	0.1	1.3	24.9	29.4	2.6	14.6	62.2	84.2	38.7	33.0	2.1	3.8
	IV	261.6	202.3	0.6	2.1	0.1	0.7	29.3	26.9	2.4	11.9	58.0	84.7	30.1	34.1	1.5	3.9
	1959	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	...	...	*66.3*	*76.0*	[illegible]	*32.2*	*3.0*	*3.1*
	I	[illegible]	227.6	0.2	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	29.0	20.5	4.2	10.5	57.9	71.0	44.0	30.0	3.7	2.8
	II	[illegible]	[illegible]	0.2	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	18.8	16.8	4.6	12.6	66.8	74.5	38.0	31.9	4.5	3.6
	III	217.3	[illegible]	0.9	5.3	0.1	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	4.1	14.0	70.3	80.2	41.7	29.3	2.9	4.1
	IV	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	...	...	*70.3*	*78.1*	[illegible]	[illegible]	*3.6*	*3.1*
12.	1953	[illegible]	82.1	0.7	3.3	...	...	13.2	6.6	0.6	4.5	26.0	29.0	37.8	19.1	...	...
E	1954	[illegible]	[illegible]	0.6	8.5	...	..	11.6	6.3	0.7	6.7	27.2	21.2	28.0	13.7	...	...
ng	1955	87.3	74.6	1.0	3.3	—	0.2	10.9	5.5	0.7	7.3	25.5	31.7	31.6	17.0	1.9	2.3
ies[a]	1956	93.2	92.2	0.5	1.6	—	1.3	13.8	4.6	1.6	7.1	29.1	34.6	34.5	26.6	0.6	1.2
	1957	111.0	105.2	1.0	0.8	0.1	1.4	12.0	11.1	1.4	8.2	30.9	31.4	38.0	21.9	1.3	1.5
	1958	94.9	78.0	0.3	0.8	0.1	0.3	5.4	10.4	0.6	5.6	23.8	31.9	31.5	21.2	1.8	1.9
	IV	102.6	83.3	0.5	1.1	0.1	0.6	4.2	8.8	0.5	5.1	22.7	35.0	24.6	22.2	0.5	2.1
	1959	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	...	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	...	...	*25.2*	*34.1*	*35.1*	*19.7*	*2.5*	*1.6*
	I	87.8	75.2	0.1	1.4	[illegible]	[illegible]	7.5	5.7	1.9	4.0	22.6	29.5	36.7	20.1	3.0	1.9
	II	87.4	101.3	—	2.1	*0.2*	*1.1*	6.3	4.7	1.6	4.7	23.5	30.6	31.8	18.0	4.2	2.1
	III	93.9	119.3	0.6	2.5	*0.1*	*0.5*	*11.7*	[illegible]	0.7	4.2	25.7	32.4	36.0	17.5	2.0	2.0
	IV	[illegible]	[illegible]	0.5	[illegible]	*0.3*	[illegible]	*16.5*	*11.9*	...	...	[illegible]	*41.9*	*40.8*	*23.4*	*2.3*	*1.3*

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b. Figures for trade with the Netherlands are as follows —

	Exp.	Imp.
1953	48.4	22.4
1954	41.3	16.4
1955	37.7	17.7
1956	42.9	22.8
1957	40.7	19.6
1958	7.8	8.3
1959	*2.3*	*4.3*

		Exp.	Imp.
1958	II	6.6	7.1
	III	6.5	5.7
	IV	5.8	5.3
1959	I	2.9	4.2
	II	2.9	2.8
	III	*1.9*	*4.8*
	IV	*1.5*	*5.4*

c. [illegible] for Republic [illegible] Korea and [illegible] are derived [illegible] trade returns of [illegible] countries. Totals for geographical and currency areas may not be complete.

d. Including some imports of aid goods from countries other than the United States.

e. Imports valued f.o.b.

f. See footnote h to table 6.

8. VALUE OF IMPORTS BY PRINCIPAL COMMODITY GROUPS

Monthly averages or calendar months

Millions

	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1958	1959				1960	
							IV	I	II	III	IV	Jan	Feb
BURMA (*kyat*)													
Food	10.3	9.0	6.3	10.9	10.0	...	10.4	...	...	...	...	...	...
Chemicals	4.6	5.4	7.1	10.3	5.4	...	6.6	...	...	...	...	...	...
Textiles	21.1	16.6	22.4	33.0	15.8	...	16.5	...	...	...	...	...	...
Base metals and manufactures	[illegible]	8.4	6.9	14.1	9.8	...	9.2	...	...	...	...	...	...
Machinery	7.3	7.3	10.1	12.0	15.7	...	10.2	...	...	...	...	...	...
Transport equipment	4.6	5.7	6.3	11.2	6.7	...	4.2	...	...	...	...	...	...
Other manufactured goods	11.2	9.3	9.7	13.9	9.2	...	8.5	...	...	...	...	...	...
CAMBODIA (*riel*)													
Food	11.0	15.1	16.5	20.5	22.5	24.8	21.2	33.1[r]	23.8[r]	21.7[r]	20.6	...	...
Beverages and tobacco	21.8	9.0	5.2	6.7	8.0	6.8	7.4	5.2	8.7	4.5	8.8	...	...
Mineral fuels	13.6	11.8	9.9	5.3	3.5	25.5	0.5	18.3[r]	16.7[r]	48.7[r]	18.2	...	...
Textiles	26.9	27.8	33.4	35.0	40.1	25.0	28.2	24.7[r]	12.9[r]	27.3[r]	35.2	...	...
Base metals and manufactures	10.1	13.1	13.6	20.0	23.4	26.0	17.8	27.8[r]	20.2	29.4[r]	26.5	...	...
Machinery	5.6	11.3	16.1	11.9	29.0	20.6	24.0	18.6	13.7	19.8[r]	30.5	...	...
Transport equipment	8.5	8.7	9.7	9.1	22.6	13.3	15.2	12.3[r]	10.2[r]	10.3[r]	20.5	...	...
CEYLON (*rupee*)[a]		a											
Food	53.8	50.3	56.7	59.4	57.8	65.7	68.8	51.0	49.9	91.2	71.0	63.8	45.1
Cereals and cereal preparations	33.0	26.1	28.3	29.0	26.0	33.0	33.8	18.5	20.7	59.4	33.4	31.7	11.9
Mineral fuels, lubricants and related materials	9.9	12.0	10.6	18.7	11.8	12.6	14.4	11.5	13.3	14.2	11.4	26.4	8.3
Chemicals	6.1	7.6	8.2	10.1	8.7	11.2	10.2	10.2	9.8	12.6	12.3	11.4	9.1
Textiles	12.2	11.3	13.4	13.6	15.1	14.2	20.3	15.7	11.4	12.6[r]	17.3	13.0	14.4
Machinery	5.7	7.1	8.7	9.5	10.6	12.3	15.2	12.7	12.6	12.9	13.0	8.6	10.7
Transport equipment	4.8	5.9	6.9	7.3	8.9	14.7	11.7	12.9	16.0	13.8	16.2	16.8	15.6
Other manufactured goods	20.0	21.8	25.1	25.3	24.1	30.2	26.5	28.3	27.4	30.2	35.0	29.8	29.0
CHINA (Taiwan, *new Taiwan dollar*)													
Food	43.7	26.6	42.4	33.6	46.7	49.6	44.3	21.3	58.5	46.8	71.9	114.3	9.4
Crude materials, inedible, except fuels	66.9	63.5	92.1	107.4	93.0	138.5	97.9	100.0	173.3	164.7	116.0	162.7	84.6
Oil-seeds, oil nuts and oil kernels	17.5	19.0	23.3	25.0	20.4	28.8	16.4	30.3	24.2	32.8	21.8	35.9	—
Textile fibres, raw	31.8	31.8	37.1	43.7	41.8	55.6	37.5	26.1	91.8	61.6	42.7	79.3	36.1
Mineral fuels, lubricants and related materials	9.3	21.3	26.2	46.3	36.6	49.0	58.5	70.3	31.8	53.9	40.2	65.2	68.0
Chemicals	47.6	44.8	75.7	62.1	103.2	146.1	124.7	122.0	140.2	200.5	121.6	153.2	70.6
Textiles	6.4	4.4	3.9	3.9	0.9	2.3	1.2	1.0	2.1	2.4	3.6	4.6	4.3
Base metals and manufactures	29.0	25.9	45.7	48.0	47.9	77.9	56.4	40.2	105.4	92.9	73.2	60.6	66.3
Machinery	33.5	43.8	60.6	74.9	76.2	134.0	123.3	115.8	132.0	164.7	123.5	98.9	84.8
Transport equipment	8.6	8.0	14.2	16.6	23.3	39.1	16.5	15.6	38.2	46.7	56.0	41.5	23.0
Other manufactured goods	20.0	16.9	26.7	33.4	28.0	39.9	26.3	30.8	51.8	37.3	39.9	50.3	41.1
FEDERATION OF MALAYA[b] (*Malayan dollar*)													
Food	35.1	39.8	43.7	44.0	43.8	42.5	45.1	39.0	40.7	45.9	45.8	48.1	45.6
Cereals and cereal preparations	12.0	14.5	15.6	15.5	16.2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Crude materials, inedible, except fuels	11.5	14.1	16.5	17.3	15.2	17.6	15.0	12.8	16.0	17.8	23.7	24.9	26.5
Metal ores and scrap	3.9	5.3	5.9	7.3	4.4	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
Mineral fuels, lubricants and related materials	9.5	10.5	11.3	12.5	11.2	10.7	11.3	9.3	12.0	10.8	10.8	8.6	10.1
Textiles	7.4	8.9	8.3	8.4	7.3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Machinery	8.2	8.3	10.6	11.7	10.4	...		...		...	...	...	...
Transport equipment	4.1	6.2	8.6	8.6	7.9	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
Other manufactured goods	19.6	23.7	26.8	27.3	22.5	...	...	...		...		...	...
INDIA (*rupee*)[a]				a									
Food[c]	80.4	94.6	84.7	162.5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Crude materials, inedible, except fuels	72.7	91.3	99.6	93.5	66.7	78.6	59.7	66.9	88.3	84.9	74.5	82.8	111.9
Cotton raw and waste	47.9	44.6	44.7	40.5	25.6	29.0	20.0	20.4	43.7	30.0	21.8	34.2	44.3
Petroleum and products	72.5	78.3	90.4	89.6	63.2	65.0	74.2	49.3	52.6	62.4	88.9	52.2	64.1
Chemicals	41.9	44.0	49.0	64.0	54.4	71.0	57.9	60.3	79.1	80.3	60.9	71.0	74.0
Base metals and manufactures	45.3	69.0	131.2	191.2	125.6	120.2	154.9	111.3	143.0	101.6	124.7	111.8	117.9
Machinery	75.7	75.9	127.5	194.1	157.4	163.5	163.1	151.6	165.8	158.0	178.6	156.2	162.6
Transport equipment	31.7	56.2	64.4	63.2	49.6	58.7	61.4	50.5	88.7	49.5	46.1	47.8	34.9
Other manufactured goods	55.8	68.2	90.8	66.4	43.8	44.3	56.7	47.7	43.8	42.5	43.1	47.3	41.0
INDONESIA (*rupiah*)													
Live animals, food products, beverages and tobacco	96.0	63.3	176.1	131.5	114.8	96.5	133.8	71.9	91.1	80.6	142.4	742.2	491.4
Chemicals and allied products	37.0	53.6	55.8	59.8	43.2	49.5	55.7	41.6	51.9	56.3	48.1	100.9	98.2
Textiles, apparel and footware	173.8	175.0	202.0	165.5	101.6	82.0	81.5	69.8	66.6	66.0	125.8	367.6	354.7
Base metals and manufactures	63.1	70.1	73.3	110.9	53.4	57.3	49.8	37.6	54.1	70.0	67.3	105.2	114.9
Machinery and transport equipment	115.7	102.4	144.6	134.0	88.5	76.8	68.2	54.3	82.1	71.7	98.8	204.8	184.0

8. VALUE OF IMPORTS BY PRINCIPAL COMMODITY GROUPS *(Cont'd)*

Monthly averages or calendar months *Millions*

	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1958	1959				1960	
							IV	I	II	III	IV	Jan	Feb
AN* *(rials)*[d]			[d]										
Food, beverages and tobacco	127.6	146.3	326.2	371.4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Sugar	94.6	78.8	189.1	180.1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Tea	25.5	58.6	78.6	137.8	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Chemicals	30.0	36.0	72.9	106.1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Textiles	128.8	117.3	270.4	312.3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Base metals and manufactures	48.8	68.7	160.5	270.4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Machinery	17.2	27.1	70.7	82.7	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Transport equipment	80.5	85.1	196.3	218.4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Other manufactured goods	131.6	175.9	421.5	558.9	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
PAN *(thousand million yen)*													
Food	19.30	18.34	16.47	17.06	15.66	14.50	14.15	14.13	16.58	14.11	13.18	...	...
Cereals and cereal preparations	14.66	13.20	11.08	9.36	9.43	8.69	7.47	7.87	10.93	8.52	7.45	...	...
Sugar and sugar preparations	3.39	3.64	4.02	5.08	3.85	3.40	3.87	4.23	3.09	3.40	2.89	...	...
Crude materials, inedible, except fuels	33.78	36.77	51.31	60.29	38.98	52.04	36.48	40.98	54.88	54.11	58.18	...	...
Oil-seeds, oil nuts & oil kernels	2.91	4.41	4.01	4.23	4.04	4.93	3.74	5.45	4.42	5.14	4.70	...	...
Crude rubber	1.30	2.24	2.66	3.05	2.59	4.25	3.02	3.17	4.00	4.86	4.98	...	...
Textile fibres, raw	18.54	17.57	23.16	23.86	18.23	13.56	15.86	18.38	21.87	16.86	21.14	...	...
Metal ores and scrap	5.13	5.57	13.70	20.78	7.73	11.89	7.20	8.79	16.33	17.19	17.24	...	...
Mineral fuels, lubricants and related materials	8.02	8.67	12.38	20.39	15.43	16.69	16.21	14.65	16.89	15.89	19.33	...	...
Chemicals	1.02	2.41	4.90	5.50	4.99	6.69	5.48	5.94	6.70	6.65	7.47	...	...
Machinery	3.77	3.29	3.93	7.26	9.11	8.96	8.02	10.57	10.89	7.47	6.89	...	...
Transport equipment	1.55	0.68	0.92	1.41	1.15	1.64	0.87	1.61	1.27	2.08	1.62	...	...
Other manufactured goods	2.04	2.41	5.68	15.26	4.42	5.93	4.14	4.60	5.15	6.79	7.18	...	...
OREA, Republic of *(hwan)*													
Food	276	555	452	922	707	1,266	702	1,740	471	1,450	1,401	1,502	1,815
Cereals and cereal preparations	112	78	65	558	198	855	99	1,237	598	784	799	958	1,101
Beverages and tobacco	126	188	220	224	174	1	152	1	3	—	—	—	2
Crude materials, inedible, except fuels	106	115	120	206	440	3,665	558	2,935	3,650	3,779	4,295	3,233	4,653
Chemicals	351	693	370	325	492	4,281	547	2,884	4,454	6,562	3,224	3,257	3,458
Textiles	604	1,273	663	345	392	1,082	389	994	1,116	855	1,363	706	1,524
Machinery	233	276	254	262	309	1,460	462	1,136	1,186	1,367	2,149	933	1,755
Transport equipment	113	52	79	48	42	308	31	1,004	117	73	40	65	31
Other manufactured goods	401	862	711	711	889	1,879	1,104	1,684	2,065	1,929	1,836	1,733	2,518
AOS *(kip)*													
Food	...	15.2	18.0	17.0	16.5	19.8	21.0	19.6	17.1	17.6	24.9	...	...
Cereals and cereal preparations	...	7.4	10.5	6.2	3.4	3.3	3.3	3.5	1.8	1.5	6.3	...	...
Petroleum products	...	2.3	4.0	4.8	8.5	14.9	9.7	13.8	11.8	16.4	17.5	...	...
Chemicals	...	2.9	5.6	8.4	4.5	4.7	4.2	3.1	4.0	5.1	6.7	...	...
Textiles	...	9.1	23.0	26.0	11.6	11.7	5.8	10.9	10.9	12.8	12.3	...	...
Machinery	...	3.9	6.9	7.8	8.3	8.9	6.4	15.4	6.8	7.5	5.8	...	...
Transport equipment	...	3.5	12.0	18.7	10.1	6.9	6.6	4.8	4.7	12.8	5.2	...	...
Other manufactured goods	...	11.5	24.6	28.1	16.5	57.7	16.6	14.5	47.9	155.6	12.6	...	...
ORTH BORNEO *(Malayan dollar)*													
Food	1.46	1.89	2.54	2.33	2.53	2.43	2.73	2.23	2.34	2.59	2.57	...	...
Mineral fuels, lubricants and related materials	0.48	0.44	0.51	0.48	0.40	1.43	0.56	0.37	2.36	1.35	1.62	...	...
Chemicals	0.24	0.32	0.41	0.44	0.44	0.58	0.43	0.53	0.52	0.64	0.63	...	...
Textiles	0.46	0.53	0.69	0.55	0.47	0.50	0.46	0.39	0.54	0.49	0.59	...	...
Machinery	0.70	0.57	0.68	0.89	0.96	1.62	1.11	1.36	1.34	1.73	2.07	...	...
Transport equipment	0.25	0.24	0.51	0.45	0.51	0.56	0.40	0.53	0.59	0.50	0.60	...	...
Other manufactured goods	1.17	1.59	2.01	2.02	1.96	2.24	2.03	1.84	2.34	2.25	2.52	...	...
AKISTAN *(rupee)*[e]													
Mineral oils	8.3	9.5	8.3	7.4	7.3	13.9	9.9	8.8	7.6	17.3	21.9	18.6	...
Chemicals	6.5	7.0	8.5	10.5	10.8	9.0	11.9	7.3	4.8	9.2	14.7	20.3	...
Iron and steel manufactures	5.9	8.3	15.5	18.8	19.7	14.2	20.0	19.0	11.8	8.8	17.3	24.1	...
Machinery	22.3	20.8	26.3	26.5	26.2	28.2	28.0	31.4	23.3	27.6	30.5	43.4	...
Transport equipment	3.7	4.1	7.7	9.5	10.7	9.4	5.3	9.1	6.8	9.8	12.0	13.0	...
HILIPPINES *(peso)*[f]													
Food	13.2	17.1	14.7	18.1	19.6	...	24.2	9.6	10.2	12.2	...	...	...
Cereals and cereal preparations	4.3	6.2	4.4	6.3	8.7	...	10.2	4.4	2.2	3.6	...	...	...
Mineral fuels, lubricants and related materials	9.0	9.0	8.7	9.6	10.2	...	11.3	8.6	9.7	10.1	...	...	...
Chemicals	6.4	7.3	6.5	9.5	8.1	...	11.8	8.1	10.0	9.2	...	...	...
Textiles	13.7	14.2	9.9	13.1	9.5	...	9.7	5.5	8.2	6.8	...	...	...
Machinery	10.3	12.4	16.1	18.0	16.0	...	14.5	15.0	18.7	18.1	...	...	...
Transport equipment	4.2	5.0	4.8	5.6	4.8	...	4.7	3.6	5.2	5.0	...	...	...
Other manufactured goods	19.8	21.7	20.1	24.9	19.9	...	19.2	15.1	19.8	21.0	...	...	...
ARAWAK *(Malayan dollar)*							[i]						
Food	3.75	4.32	4.36	4.57	4.04	4.65	4.49	3.94		5.35		...	...
Mineral fuels, lubricants and related materials	22.40	24.93	26.80	27.38	25.87	25.42	26.20	25.93		24.92		...	...
Chemicals	0.70	0.82	0.79	0.80	0.83	0.97	0.92	0.82		1.12		...	...
Textiles	0.57	0.61	0.54	0.47	0.42	0.61	0.43	0.59		0.63		...	...
Machinery	1.19	1.21	1.20	1.20	1.03	1.42	1.19	1.26		1.59		...	...
Transport equipment	0.36	0.37	0.45	0.38	0.36	0.37	0.33	0.30		0.45		...	...
Other manufactured goods	2.19	2.37	2.38	2.13	2.00	2.49	2.11	2.31		2.67		...	...

8. VALUE OF IMPORTS BY PRINCIPAL COMMODITY GROUPS *(Cont'd)*

Monthly averages or calendar months *Millions*

	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1958	1959				1960	
							IV	I	II	III	IV	Jan	Feb
SINGAPORE (*Malayan dollar*)[g]													
Food	44.7	45.2	50.5	50.0	53.2	48.4	42.3	43.8	53.1	43.7	52.8	48.7	...
Cereals and cereal preparations	11.7	11.7	13.3	12.1	15.9	11.1	8.5	7.8	15.2	9.7	11.7	10.4	...
Crude materials, inedible, except fuels	38.7	59.5	54.9	57.0	50.8	72.9	52.2	56.1	74.8	74.3	86.3	81.3	...
Crude rubber	27.8	51.0	46.4	45.6	41.2	62.6	42.9	44.7	63.2	65.1	77.5	74.6	...
Mineral fuels, lubricants and related materials	43.7	50.0	59.1	65.2	55.8	50.0	45.5	54.5	45.9	54.4	45.2	39.8	...
Textiles	12.7	17.9	17.9	17.6	22.0	18.0	23.0	20.0	19.2	15.4	17.2	19.1	...
Machinery	7.9	10.3	12.2	13.5	12.3	11.4	13.7	9.9	11.8	12.6	11.4	13.2	...
Transport equipment	4.9	6.2	7.6	9.0	7.8	6.3	7.0	5.0	6.5	6.8	6.8	6.4	...
Other manufactured goods	25.7	30.2	34.1	37.7	33.3	31.0	31.1	30.0	33.5	31.3	29.5	29.9	...
THAILAND (*baht*)													
Food	53.3	51.5	55.2	57.8	65.1	61.0	64.8	53.6	54.4	73.9	62.0	*46.7*	*46.0*
Mineral fuels, lubricants and related materials	47.5	57.0	64.6	77.3	75.1	78.7	71.8	73.5	65.2	81.8	94.5	*57.7*	*62.3*
Chemicals	43.9	48.1	54.5	62.8	63.1	76.5	66.8	67.4	84.5	78.9	75.1	*59.9*	*68.7*
Textiles	105.0	113.4	120.3	113.7	102.0	*112.0*	*98.1*	*109.9*	*103.6*	*108.4*	*126.0*	*96.4*	*127.9*
Machinery	71.1	65.3	73.8	85.2	93.6	*121.8*	*81.3*	*85.8*	*115.2*	*129.6*	*156.6*	*207.9*	*134.5*
Transport equipment	44.6	48.7	53.1	73.7	61.4	*53.9*	*50.7*	*47.0*	*60.9*	*59.7*	*48.1*	*64.1*	*58.7*
Other manufactured goods	168.7	191.1	173.8	189.7	184.1	*174.8*	*159.5*	*173.2*	*195.9*	*154.3*	*175.8*	*190.3*	*194.7*
VIET-NAM (*piastre*)[h]													
Food	122.0	89.6	82.2	75.9	69.5	69.2	67.0	60.0	71.7	56.5	83.5	63.6	61.1
Petroleum and products	41.0	33.7	35.0	44.6	46.8	51.8	60.5	44.5	56.8	49.1	56.7	50.9	51.9
Textiles	190.1	111.2	123.5	128.7	108.5	73.9	108.2	74.9	71.6	64.7	84.4	69.5	71.6
Machinery	76.2	65.4	49.2	83.9	63.0	75.2	67.2	50.8	70.1	78.1	101.8	35.0	97.4
Transport equipment	49.3	52.3	32.6	58.3	53.4	42.0	37.2	[illegible]	[illegible]	45.5	51.6	21.2	45.3

GENERAL NOTE: See table 6.

a. 1954 figures for Ceylon, 1954 to 1956 figures for India, reclassified by ECAFE Secretariat, may not conform exactly to the new classification beginning from 1955 and 1957 respectively.

b. Including trade with Singapore.

c. Including imports of cereals on government account.

d. Prior to 1956, transaction values converted from foreign currency to rials at the official rate of exchange and excluding the value of exchange certificates; beginning 1956, including the value of exchange certificates.

e. Figures prior to 1956, relating to private account only. From 1956 onwards figures including government account.

f. Imports valued f.o.b.

g. Excluding trade with the Federation of Malaya.

h. See footnote h to table 6.

i Averages of Jul-Dec.

9. VALUE OF EXPORTS BY PRINCIPAL COMMODITIES AND/OR COMMODITY GROUPS

Monthly averages or calendar months *Millions*

	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1958	1959				1960	
							IV	I	II	III	IV	Jan	Feb
BURMA (*kyat*)													
Rice and products	79.4	68.1	72.3	66.7	57.0	...	46.1	46.5	60.0	*81.0*	...	...	...
Natural rubber	2.4	2.7	3.7	3.1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Teak	2.0	1.8	2.8	5.6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Raw cotton	4.2	3.2	4.3	*2.1*	*1.3*	...	*0.3*	*1.0*	*2.7*	*2.0*	...	...	...
Base metals and ores	3.8	4.9	5.2	3.9	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
CAMBODIA (*riel*)													
Rice	[illegible]	[illegible]	20.6	55.8	64.6	67.1	24.0	23.9	123.3	57.8	63.4	...	...
Maize	16.9	12.5	15.9	14.8	18.7	16.1	37.1	5.4	11.9	10.4	36.6	...	...
Natural rubber	34.3	51.1	42.2	47.7	51.2	57.9	67.8	53.2	40.5	97.2	40.8	...	...
CEYLON (*rupee*)													
Tea	93.6	99.5	87.0	85.1	94.2	87.1	97.9	78.8	81.9	90.2	97.4	90.5	92.9
Coconut and products	18.2	19.0	18.0	13.3	13.6	20.3	18.2	17.4	18.8	22.5	22.4	14.0	12.1
Natural rubber	23.8	29.2	24.4	25.0	21.5	24.8	25.1	24.4	29.2	20.6	25.1	59.4	27.1
CHINA (Taiwan, *new Taiwan dollar*)													
Rice	9.4	37.3	34.4	37.0	54.4	70.9	63.7	92.9	99.6	—	91.0	—	—
Fruits, fresh, dried and preserved	10.7	12.3	18.4	16.2	26.3	43.5	20.6	29.0	58.5	45.2	41.2	32.2	25.8
Tea	12.1	7.0	10.2	11.8	13.1	21.0	12.7	14.2	19.2	13.3	37.2	14.4	12.9
Sugar	70.2	79.6	127.6	191.0	166.8	193.4	94.3	309.8	257.0	81.3	125.3	304.2	203.1
FEDERATION OF MALAYA[a] (*Malayan dollar*)													
Rubber	75.3	132.0	114.8	108.7	99.8	143.5	118.2	122.2	122.9	154.1	174.7	*175.7*	*158.8*
Iron ore	1.8	2.7	4.3	5.5	5.2	8.3	4.5	3.5	10.8	11.7	7.3	*5.0*	*4.6*
Vegetable oils	7.2	7.2	8.3	7.7	7.3	6.8	7.3	4.8	7.2	8.0	7.2	*8.7*	*5.3*
Tin	18.4	19.3	28.4	26.6	19.7	24.5	18.9	23.6	20.8	24.5	29.3	*32.3*	*32.2*
INDIA (*rupee*)[b]													
Food	144.8	131.2	157.6	[h] 149.3	160.3	*161.8*	*213.4*	*120.2*	*105.3*	*191.0*	*230.7*	*185.0*	*141.8*
Tea	109.4	94.3	118.5	102.8	113.8	*105.3*	*158.2*	*67.0*	*55.3*	*133.1*	*165.9*	*101.9*	*72.9*
Spices	12.0	8.8	7.7	7.0	7.4	*8.5*	*7.9*	*6.8*	*5.5*	*7.8*	*13.8*	*26.1*	*20.4*
Crude materials, inedible, except fuels	73.2	98.3	84.2	103.8	85.1	*97.7*	*76.3*	*96.8*	*95.8*	*96.8*	*101.5*	*99.2*	*99.2*
Hides and skins, undressed	5.7	5.6	5.1	5.8	6.0	*8.9*	*6.9*	*8.8*	*8.1*	*8.5*	*10.3*	*13.3*	*7.9*
Cotton raw and waste	15.4	28.9	20.9	15.6	17.7	*13.6*	*16.4*	*16.0*	*13.0*	*15.9*	*9.7*	*8.8*	*12.1*
Vegetable oils	7.4	31.2	17.4	9.5	6.2	*11.6*	*4.6*	*4.1*	*9.9*	*11.4*	*21.3*	*7.5*	*7.3*
Chemicals	4.7	4.1	4.5	4.6	3.7	*4.1*	*4.2*	*3.7*	*3.4*	*4.8*	*4.6*	*4.5*	*5.9*
Leather and manufactures	18.2	19.0	18.7	18.1	15.3	*24.0*	*15.5*	*17.5*	*23.9*	*27.0*	*27.7*	*21.9*	*25.4*
Cotton yarn and fabrics	59.7	53.0	51.9	57.2	43.9	*55.1*	*50.0*	*46.0*	*38.0*	*60.7*	*75.8*	*59.4*	*53.2*
Jute yarn and fabrics	101.2	102.9	94.6	49.6	49.6	*55.5*	*49.2*	*55.7*	*50.6*	*59.6*	*56.1*	*51.0*	*53.9*
Other manufactured goods	29.3	31.3	30.9	109.7	81.1	*75.2*	*70.9*	*65.1*	*68.8*	*81.4*	*85.4*	*69.6*	*60.5*

9. VALUE OF EXPORTS BY PRINCIPAL COMMODITIES AND OR COMMODITY GROUPS (*Cont'd*)

Monthly averages or calendar months *Millions*

	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1958	1959				1960	
							IV	I	II	III	IV	Jan	Feb
IDONESIA (*rupiah*)													
Tea	37.9	29.7	28.1	28.4	23.6	19.2	22.1	13.2	26.7	16.3	20.0	108.4	107.2
Copra	55.1	40.4	42.8	40.5	19.9	30.2	32.8	28.5	24.1	12.2	56.3	172.5	198.2
Natural rubber	257.6	410.0	335.7	331.9	248.2	396.6	339.0	271.9	409.9	388.6'	514.5	1,403.9	1,607.5
Tin ore	58.4	55.9	60.5	46.4	35.9'	34.0	28.1'	25.4	36.5'	29.8'	40.4	177.8	182.4
Petroleum and products	215.8	205.0	213.3	278.9	268.2	219.8	291.7	169.9	420.0	215.3	99.3	201.6	695.1
AN* (*rials*)													
Fruits, fresh, dried and preserved	125.5	97.8	113.2	124.7	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Raw cotton	215.2	139.5	139.7	160.4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Petroleum and products	167.3	783.8	1,325.7	1,608.1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Carpets, hand made	104.6	104.7	105.3	123.2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
APAN (*thousand million yen*)													
Food	3.92	3.98	5.32	5.36	6.92	7.63	10.06	6.78	5.54	8.42	9.79	...	...
Fish and fish preparations	2.23	2.27	3.62	3.66	5.13	5.35	7.99	4.71	3.41	5.98	7.31	...	...
Crude materials, inedible except fuels	2.50	2.94	2.86	2.79	2.27	3.28	2.89	2.09	2.97	3.80	4.24	...	...
Textile fibres, raw	1.54	1.74	1.65	1.74	1.13	1.98	1.62	1.03	1.58	2.44	2.89	...	...
Chemicals	2.37	2.82	3.21	3.79	4.13	5.01	3.79	5.89	4.85	4.38	4.94	...	...
Textiles	16.50	17.55	20.81	24.44	21.17	22.78	22.79	19.50	21.63	22.48	27.49	...	...
Base metals and manufactures	7.51	11.61	10.24	9.70	11.15	12.05	12.94	10.25	11.57	11.84	14.54	...	...
Machinery	3.86	3.83	5.07	6.21	7.08	11.16	9.00	7.39	10.08	11.81	15.34	...	...
Transport equipment	2.20	3.57	9.56	12.75	11.91	13.34	10.76	12.32	13.00	12.62	14.88	...	...
Other manufactured goods	9.22	12.97	16.76	20.12	20.10	27.00	22.31	19.64	26.53	29.62	32.17	...	...
OREA, Republic of (*hwan*)													
Food	67	43	58	152	159	251	404	206	428	122	247	287	271
Crude materials, inedible except fuels	427	566	842	586	590	744	739	520	1,100	863	493	380	838
Chemicals	32	47	36	24	1	11	1	8	8	11	16	55	14
Manufactured goods	26	65	108	169	165	161	153	61	215	172	194	158	176
AOS (*kip*)													
Wood and lumber	...	1.00	0.28	0.13	0.58	1.07	0.23	0.11	0.22	3.00	0.96	...	...
Tin ore	...	0.75	1.34	1.50	1.60	2.11	2.48	1.20	3.15	1.86	2.23	...	...
Gums and resins	...	0.59	0.74	0.63	0.49	0.29	0.30	0.17	0.50	0.30	0.20	...	...
Plants for use in medicine and perfumery	...	0.09	0.24	0.13	0.58	0.84	0.84	0.32	2.30	0.42	0.31	...	...
ORTH BORNEO (*Malayan dollar*)													
Copra	1.15	1.18	1.94	2.00	2.68	2.93	2.88	2.44	2.74	3.19	3.35	...	...
Rubber	2.03	3.84	3.36	3.10	2.74	3.92	3.04	3.32	3.36	3.98	5.02	...	...
Timber	1.46	1.81	2.18	2.63	3.03	5.09	2.99	2.93	4.80	6.11	6.52	...	...
AKISTAN (*rupee*)[c]													
Tea	3.9	2.9	4.5	2.0	2.8	2.4	4.4	0.6	0.1	3.1	5.9	6.6	...
Raw jute	45.4	58.0	62.6	65.2	70.0	56.7	83.2	60.3	42.4	41.7	82.3	75.6	...
Raw cotton	29.1	33.6	30.3	27.6	20.0	10.1	14.0	14.0	13.0	8.5	4.8	26.5	...
Raw wool	3.5	5.6	5.9	8.6	4.0	5.1	4.9	5.5	6.7	3.7	4.5	8.9	...
Hides and skins	2.8	2.6	3.3	3.4	3.4	6.8	3.7	3.3	5.6	5.7	5.7	7.9	...
HILIPPINES (*peso*)													
Coconut and coconut preparations	27.4	25.4	29.3	28.8	30.0	...	34.0	24.1	26.6	42.1	...	...	...
Sugar and related products	18.4	18.6	17.6	14.9	19.5	...	12.6	19.2	26.4	14.9	...	...	...
Fibres and manufactures	4.9	5.1	6.5	7.1	4.9	...	4.9	5.6	7.1	6.5	...	...	...
Minerals and metals	5.9	6.7	9.2	8.7	6.2	...	9.0	6.7	10.1	12.1	...	...	...
Logs, lumber and timber	5.9	6.9	8.1	7.5	11.6	...	14.2	9.8	16.9	19.1	...	...	...
ARAWAK (*Malayan dollar*)													
Pepper	3.64	2.64	2.05	1.44	1.28	1.51	1.66[g]	0.94		2.07		...	...
Rubber	2.87	6.64	5.86	6.20	5.11	8.04	6.06	6.20		9.88		...	...
Timber, sawn and logs	1.16	1.83	1.59	1.63	1.63	2.59	1.63	2.12		3.06		...	...
Mineral fuels, lubricants and related materials	24.46	26.74	29.85	30.51	27.83	28.26	29.58	29.22		27.30		...	...
SINGAPORE (*Malayan dollar*)[d]													
Rubber	66.2	115.9	102.0	95.5	85.8	125.3	98.2	101.7	117.0	134.6	147.7	130.0	...
Mineral fuels	29.4	31.2	36.2	36.9	30.2	28.6	25.8	23.9	31.5	27.0	25.7	25.7	...
Vegetable oils	4.5	3.9	3.9	4.7	3.6	3.3	4.2	2.6	3.0	3.5	4.0	3.5	...
Tin	16.3	16.9	11.6	11.1	4.0	0.4	1.0	0.7	0.5	0.2	0.1	0.2	...
THAILAND (*baht*)[e]													
Rice	257.2	261.1	233.4	301.9	248.0	215.9	142.3	236.9	229.5	182.6	214.6	261.0	197.3
Natural rubber	92.4	150.2	127.2	117.2	110.6	194.7	111.3	207.9	137.3	221.7	211.8	216.8	266.8
Teak	17.6	22.0	25.5	21.8	19.9	20.4	23.8	17.7	16.7	20.3	26.9	21.7	27.5
Tin ore and concentrates	31.1	36.7	42.3	44.3	21.2	36.2	23.0	23.0	26.7	51.5	43.6	28.5	25.9
VIET-NAM (*piastre*)[f]													
Rice and products	64.2	26.2	1.1	59.3	40.6	69.2	2.5	44.0	58.9	100.1	73.9	74.6	42.8
Natural rubber	68.7	122.7	107.0	140.8	103.5	136.8	150.3	86.6	97.3	143.3	220.1	146.0	118.6

GENERAL NOTE: See table 6.

a. Including trade with Singapore.

b. Figures for 1954 to 1956, reclassified by ECAFE Secretariat, may not conform exactly to the new classification from 1957.

c. Figures prior to 1956, relating to private account only. From 1956 onwards figures including government account.

d. Excluding trade with the Federation of Malaya.

e. Baht value is obtained by converting foreign currencies at free market buying rate.

f. See footnote h to table 6.

g. Averages of Jul-Dec.

10. QUANTITY OF EXPORTS OF MAJOR COMMODITIES

Monthly averages or calendar months

Thousand tons

	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1958	1959				1960	
							IV	I	II	III	IV	Jan	Feb
RICE													
Burma	123.6	141.5	162.1	155.7	127.7	*141.0*	111.8	*106.9*	*133.2*	*188.3*	*135.8*	*121.1*	*211.4*
Cambodia	24.7	8.4	5.8	19.2	21.2	20.2	8.5	8.8	33.1	17.9	20.9	23.0	...
China (Taiwan)	3.0	14.2	9.1	10.1	14.9	13.3	17.5	17.5	18.8	—	17.1	—	—
Thailand	83.5	102.6	105.1	130.8	88.8	91.5	52.7	93.2	93.0	79.2	100.6	118.1	90.4
Viet-Nam[a]	14.6	‖ 6.8	‖ 0.4	15.7	9.8	20.8	0.7	12.3	14.2	30.3	22.9	23.2	13.3
SUGAR													
China (Taiwan)	43.5	48.8	50.0	62.4	68.1	61.2	42.4	95.8	83.0	25.6	40.3	105.8	66.9
India	...	...	...	16.4	7.0	4.1	10.6	5.4	7.7	2.6	0.9	1.4	1.3
Indonesia	17.7	14.7	14.1	12.2	7.4	3.3	4.5	—	—	1.4	11.8	5.4	1.0
Philippines	72.4	77.2	71.9	59.3	80.8	*79.1*	57.6	77.7	111.1	59.2	*68.4*	...	...
TEA													
Ceylon	13.6	13.6	13.2	13.3	14.3	15.0	14.3	13.2	15.8	15.1	16.1	‖ 15.0	15.5
China (Taiwan)	1.3	0.6	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.2	1.0	0.8	1.4	0.8	2.2	0.8	0.8
India	16.8	13.6	19.5	16.5	18.9	17.7	25.4	12.0	9.3	21.7	26.6	16.6	*11.9*
Indonesia	3.4	2.4	2.9	3.0	2.9	2.5	2.8	1.8	3.5	2.1	2.5	2.9	*3.1*
Japan	1.4	1.2	0.9	0.9	0.6	0.7	0.5	0.4	0.7	0.9	0.7	0.5	0.5
Pakistan	0.8	0.4	0.8	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.7	—	—	0.6	1.2	1.2	0.3
HIDES & SKINS													
India (*tons*)	1,220‡	1,174	1,048	1,083	1,003	1,087	1,096	1,151	1,100	1,032	1,093	1,384	874
Pakistan (*thousand pieces*)	811	749	878	856	887	979	998	662	1,138	963	1,152	1,117	...
COPRA[b] & COCONUT OIL													
Ceylon	8.3	11.8	10.3	6.4	5.2	8.2	7.8	7.8	8.0	7.1	8.5	5.0	4.0
Federation of Malaya[c,d] (coconut oil)	3.7	4.8	6.0	4.7	3.4	1.8	2.7	0.8	2.0	2.1	2.1	2.2	0.7
Indonesia (copra)	15.8	12.5	13.8	15.4	6.2	7.0	9.3	6.7	5.3	2.1	14.0	11.0	13.0
N. Borneo	1.4	1.9	3.2	3.4	3.7	3.2	3.7	2.5	2.7	3.8	3.6	...	...
Philippines	45.5	48.4	59.8	57.6	50.0	*47.3*	54.3	32.3	32.0	60.5	*64.2*	...	...
Singapore (coconut oil)[c]	3.0	2.9	2.7	3.7	2.3	1.4	2.0	0.9	1.0	1.5	2.1	1.0	2.0
PALM OIL													
Federation of Malaya[c,d]	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.9	3.8	3.9	5.0	3.8	3.7	4.5	3.5	7.9	4.2
Indonesia	11.7	10.5	10.4	10.8	11.0	8.6	14.0	7.5	7.5	8.2	11.4	8.2	5.9
Singapore[c]	2.1	2.3	2.4	1.9	1.9	2.0	2.7	1.8	2.4	1.9	1.8	3.2	1.8
GROUND NUTS[b] & OIL													
India	2.5	14.8	2.8	0.4	0.6	4.7	1.0	4.0	3.5	1.1	8.9	5.0	5.7
NATURAL RUBBER													
Brunei	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.3
Burma	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.1	0.9	*1.0*	*1.0*	*1.0*	*1.0*	*1.0*	*1.0*	*1.0*	*1.0*
Cambodia	2.0	2.2	2.4	2.6	2.8	2.8	2.9	2.7	1.8	3.4	3.5	3.8	2.3
Ceylon	7.6	8.2	7.3	8.0	7.7	7.8	8.1	9.7	7.0	6.9	7.6	16.9	6.6
Federation of Malaya[c,d]	35.3	37.9	36.6	38.9	39.0	43.3	42.8	44.9	40.0	45.7	43.3	48.7	38.0
Indonesia	61.7	61.1	56.6	56.4	50.5	60.0	64.2	48.6	64.9	57.1	69.3	45.4	49.8
N. Borneo	1.4	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.9	1.8	1.9	1.7	1.9	2.2	1.7	2.0
Sarawak	1.9	3.3	3.5	3.5	3.3	3.7	3.6	2.7	3.5	4.6	4.0	4.1	4.0
Singapore[c,e]	13.1	15.6	15.7	16.1	17.2	19.3	19.9	22.1	15.0	20.7	19.5	12.2	6.2
Thailand	9.9	11.0	11.3	11.3	11.6	14.4	10.1	17.8	10.2	15.7	13.9	13.1	16.2
Viet-Nam, Republic of	4.6	5.2	5.3	6.1	5.7	6.1	6.9	5.7	4.5	7.6	6.6	10.5	4.5
COTTON, RAW													
India	2.3	7.9	5.9	3.4	6.1	4.9	5.7	6.2	4.7	5.7	2.9	3.2	4.5
Iran[f]	3.0	3.7	3.2	3.3	3.8	...	—	5.5	2.6	...	...	...	...
Pakistan	11.8	14.0	10.9	9.6	8.1	4.5	6.4	6.1	5.8	3.7	2.2	11.8	...
COTTON YARN (*tons*)													
Fed. of Malaya and Singapore[d]	54	9	44	11	43	158	60	33	10	349	239	269	...
Hong Kong	1,172	1,228	1,183	1,262	1,166	1,118	1,429	873	1,338	1,320	941	1,043	504
Japan	1,117	991	1,032	1,217	936	917	645	920	836	[illegible]	906	328	3,372
COTTON PIECE GOODS (*million sq. metres*)													
Fed. of Malaya and Singapore[d]	2.7	5.0	4.5	4.5	4.2	3.2	4.3	3.1	4.1	2.6	2.8	1.8	...
Hong Kong	11.3	11.5	9.8	13.7	15.4	16.4	23.5	14.4	17.6	16.7	16.9	15.2	21.0
India (*million metres*)	65.6	56.9	56.7	67.1	47.4	64.6	49.4	42.6	47.9	68.6	[illegible]	67.6	79.3
Japan	89.0	79.3	87.9	102.3	86.8	88.0	92.3	81.2	83.2	87.4	101.2	59.4	104.5
JUTE													
Pakistan (raw)	74.3	81.8	71.5	65.4	75.5	67.4	[illegible]	66.9	52.1	54.0	96.8	100.5	...
India (bag and cloth)	67.8	79.6	67.9	65.9	67.2	73.2	63.0	63.0	65.5	83.4	80.9	51.7	56.3
HEMP, RAW													
Philippines	8.2	9.3	10.2	9.6	8.4	*8.1*	10.5	8.2	9.1	7.6	7.7	...	...
TIN CONCENTRATES (*tons*)													
Burma	52	79	71	*72*	*112*	*117*	*131*	96	*72*	*146*	*152*	*122*	*91*
Indonesia	2,874	2,689	2,638	2,318	1,553	1,560	1,229	1,247	1,511	1,555	1,917	[illegible]	2,053
Thailand	806	935	1,052	1,130	548	654	572	552	651	1,135	1,018	666	625
TIN METAL (*tons*)													
Federation of Malaya[c,d]	3,134	3,204	4,399	4,252	3,212	3,727	3,070	3,647	3,127	3,678	4,456	4,950	5,568
Singapore[c]	2,816	2,821	1,806	1,763	667	49	157	111	47	23	16	23	96
PETROLEUM & PRODUCTS													
Brunei (crude oil)	398	433	469	455	421	448	449	444	454	459	437	...	...
Fed. of Malaya and Singapore[d]	235	263	239	236	172	183	145	149	[illegible]	173	195	171	...
Indonesia	827	808	877	1,301	1,122	881	1,238	501	1,848	762	411	259	1,322

[a] Beginning June 1955, Republic of Viet-Nam only.
[b] In terms of oil equivalent.
[c] Net exports.
[d] Excluding movements between Singapore and Federation of Malaya.
[e] Excluding Federation of Malaya rubber transhipped at Singapore.
[f] Prior to 1958, annual data: 12 months ending 21 July of year stated.

11. INDEX NUMBERS OF QUANTUM, UNIT VALUE AND TERMS OF TRADE

1953 = 100[a]

	1952	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1958	1959				1960	
								IV	I	II	III	IV	Jan	Feb
A. Quantum														
RMA														
Imports	104	123	104	88	132	82	...	91	80	140	92	...	...	...
Exports	115	130	145	163	152	117	...	90	119	146	195	...	...	...
YLON														
Imports:[b] General	96	99	97	106	112	113	125	141	111	107	150	132	131	92
Exports:[b] General	97	103	109	104	99	107	105	119	98	99	111	111	117	101
Imports (*Central Bank index*)	99	93	96	105	111	112	126	137	113	102	154	132	142	93
Consumer goods	98	89	95	106	107	115	122	144	107	95	157	130	142	92
Capital goods	104	103	104	102	125	102	139	116	137	129	151	140	148	97
HINA (Taiwan)														
Imports (*ordinary and ICA*)	91	105	98	94	102	113	125	133	100	130	156	116	...	...
Exports	67	69	86	83	97	118	111	91	145	142	56	102	...	...
DERATION OF MALAYA and SINGAPORE[c]														
Imports	116	107	128	140	139	139	139	141	129	145	137	147	...	...
Exports	109	110	118	127	130	130	131	126	124	126	135	137	...	...
DIA‡														
Imports	108	118	125	147	168	151	...	146	134	162	153	...	...	...
Exports	100	105	115	110	119	108	...	118	105	102	130	...	...	...
APAN[d]														
Imports: General	74	104	109	138	172	142	179	144	155	189	178	193	194	212
Exports: General	92	133	174	208	232	240	285	269	250	267	289	334	214	308
HILIPPINES														
Imports[e]	90	111	125	123	137	121	...	135	90	106	106	...	...	...
Exports	107	111	121	138	129	140	...	151	118	142	159	...	...	...
HAILAND														
Imports	82	103	110	113	121	118	128	115	113	129	128	144	...	...
Exports	102	96	113	119	131	110	123	93	124	109	123	137	...	...
IET-NAM[f]														
Imports	103	113	90	77	95	82	85	86	68	87	85	99	59	87
Exports	123	113	132	85	155	122	164	137	106	133	197	221	162	130
B. Unit Value														
URMA														
Imports	115	93	89	82	91	98	...	94	83	83	94	...	...	...
Exports	94	77	62	62	57	62	...	60	60	57	55	...	...	...
EYLON														
Imports:[b] General	110	88	89	99	92	83	91	86	84	89	89	86	87	87
Exports:[b] General	98	112	117	109	104	102	107	102	103	108	105	112	110	114
Imports (*Central Bank index*)	108	92	86	90	95	87	86	89	86	90	88	87	88	87
Consumer goods	107	91	84	85	89	81	83	85	82	86	86	87	84	83
Capital goods	113	95	97	107	114	105	98	100	96	101	98	99	102	101
CHINA (Taiwan)														
Imports (*ordinary and ICA*)	111	108	111	106	110	106	100	107	102	104	97	95	...	...
Exports	113	105	110	105	116	100	90	98	91	90	85	93	...	...
EDERATION OF MALAYA and SINGAPORE[c]														
Imports	108	90	92	91	96	91	93	90	89	91	96	96	...	...
Exports	125	94	120	110	105	95	116	102	102	114	119	127	...	...
NDIA‡														
Imports	109	97	95	99	107	100	...	101	100	98	88	...	...	...
Exports	109	107	98	102	102	101	...	104	99	98	100	...	...	...
NDONESIA														
Imports	110	91	91	88	87	92	89	93	108	80	78	89	...	...
Exports	113	96	109	102	98	90	106	91	99	92	110	120	...	...
APAN[d]														
Imports	114	96	94	97	103	89	83	83	84	83	84	82	85	86
Exports	108	96	91	94	97	94	95	93	91	96	96	97	96	97
KOREA,[g] Republic of (1957=100)														
Imports	...	...	...	...	100	92	86	88	87	86	85	85	84	86
Exports	...	...	...	...	100	82	90	83	84	87	92	96	102	105
PAKISTAN[h]														
Imports	102	98	105	112	124	134	...	129	126	130	126	...	...	...
Exports	142	107	104	98	105	97	...	93	95	89	87	...	...	...
PHILIPPINES														
Imports[e]	105	96	96	97	100	102	...	100	101	104	108	...	...	...
Exports	82	89	81	83	84	87	...	87	91	95	93	...	...	...
THAILAND														
Imports	97	105	106	106	109	105	104	103	103	102	105	105	...	...
Exports	102	111	109	100	99	102	107	105	104	106	109	107	...	...
VIET-NAM[f]														
Imports	81	101	95	90	99	93	86	91	89	83	85	88	85	90
Exports	88	94	99	92	97	85	85	81	84	82	84	91	93	88

11. INDEX NUMBERS OF QUANTUM, UNIT VALUE AND TERMS OF TRADE *(Cont'd)*

1953=100[a]

C. Terms of trade

Percentage of unit value index of exports to unit value index of imports

	1952	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1958	1959				1960	
								IV	I	II	III	IV	Jan	Feb
BURMA	82	83	70	76	63	63	. . .	64	72	69	58	. . .	. . .	. . .
CEYLON	89	127	132	110	109	123	118	120	122	122	118	130	126	131
CHINA (Taiwan)	102	97	99	99	105	94	90	92	89	86	87	98	. . .	. . .
FEDERATION OF MALAYA and SINGAPORE . . .	116	‖104	130	121	109	104	124	113	115	125	124	131	. . .	. . .
INDIA‡	100	110	103	‖103[i]	95	97	. . .	103	99	101	113	. . .	. . .	. . .
INDONESIA	103	105	120	116	112	97	119	98	92	115	142	136	. . .	. . .
JAPAN	94	100	96	97	94	106	114	112	108	115	114	118	113	113
KOREA, Republic of . . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	100	90	105	94	97	101	108	114	116	122
PAKISTAN	139	109	99	88	85	72	. . .	72	75	68	69	. . .	. . .	. . .
PHILIPPINES	78	93	85	85	84	85	. . .	87	90	91	86	. . .	. . .	. . .
THAILAND	106	106	103	95	91	97	103	102	101	104	105	102	. . .	. . .
VIET-NAM	109	93	‖104	102	98	91	99	89	95	99	99	104	. . .	. . .

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a. Original base: *Burma*, Apr 1936-Mar 1941 for the period prior to 1953, 1952 since 1953; *China (Taiwan)*, 1952; *Ceylon*, 1948; *Federation of Malaya and Singapore*, 1938 for period prior to 1953, 1952 since 1953; *India*, Apr 1952/Mar 1953; *Indonesia*, 1950; *Japan*, 1950; *Republic of Korea*, 1957; *Pakistan*, Apr 1948/Mar 1949; *Philippines*, 1955; *Thailand*, 1953; *Viet-Nam*, 1949.

b. All trade indexes since 1950 except the annual import price index have been computed on a fixed base (1948) weights method. The annual import price index has been computed by using moving current weights on 1948 base.

c. Figures from 1953, though linked to previous figures, have different treatment in imports and exports of petroleum products.

d. Indexes compiled by Ministry of Finance. The commodity groups are abridged titles of selected SITC sections and divisions.

e. Based on f.o.b. import prices.

f. See footnote h to table 6.

g Index in terms of U.S. dollars.

h Imports excluding land trade. Index in terms of U.S. dollars.

i. Calendar year from 1956.

12. INDEX NUMBERS OF PRICES RECEIVED AND PAID BY FARMERS

1953=100[a]

	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1958	1959				1960	
							IV	I	II	III	IV	Jan	Feb
CHINA (Taiwan)													
Prices received by farmers (R) .	92	102	110	122	122	136	124	127	130	138	150	. . .	. . .
Prices paid by farmers (P) . . .	93	101	111	118	120	132	120	125	127	133	141	. . .	. . .
Cultivation cost	93	106	113	120	125	136	124	131	131	135	146	. . .	. . .
Domestic expenditure . . .	92	100	109	117	117	130	119	123	126	132	139	. . .	. . .
Ratio (R) ÷ (P)	99	100	99	103	102	103	103	101	102	104	106	. . .	. . .
INDIA (Punjab)													
Prices received by farmers (R) .	94	78	97	104	107	. . .	122	138	108	108	. . .	. . .	. . .
Prices paid by farmers (P) . . .	98	86	96	104	108	. . .	117	125	115	111	. . .	. . .	. . .
Cultivation cost	92	79	91	95	105	. . .	118	132	112	110	. . .	. . .	. . .
Domestic expenditure . . .	102	91	99	110	111	. . .	116	122	117	112	. . .	. . .	. . .
Ratio (R) ÷ (P)	96	90	101	100	99	. . .	104	110	94	97	. . .	. . .	. . .
INDIA (West Bengal, *1954=100*)													
Prices received by farmers (R) .	100	102	118	135	143	. . .	150	121	137	157	. . .	. . .	. . .
Prices paid by farmers (P) . . .	100	98	106	113	119	. . .	121	113	119	125	. . .	. . .	. . .
Cultivation cost	100	98	103	105	111	. . .	114	112	113	122	. . .	. . .	. . .
Domestic expenditure . . .	100	97	108	118	124	. . .	124	113	122	126	. . .	. . .	. . .
Ratio (R) ÷ (P)	100	105	111	119	120	. . .	125	108	115	126	. . .	. . .	. . .
JAPAN[b] (*Apr 1953-Mar 1954=100*)													
Prices received by farmers (R) .	98‡	95‡	98	99	97	97	97	96	96	97	98	98	. . .
Prices paid by farmers (P) . . .	103‡	101‡	102	105	103	103	102	102	103	103	104	105	. . .
Cultivation cost	102‡	98‡	98	102	100	97	98	97	97	96	97	98	. . .
Domestic expenditure . . .	103‡	103‡	103	106	105	107	105	105	106	107	108	109	. . .
Ratio (R) ÷ (P)	96‡	94‡	97	94	94	94	95	94	93	94	94	93	. . .

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a. Original base: *China (Taiwan)* 1952, *India, Punjab*, Sep 1938/Aug 1939; *West Bengal*, 1939; *Japan*, Apr 1951/Mar 1952.

b. Index numbers of commodity prices in 473 towns or villages. Annual figures prior to 1956 relate to fiscal year April to March.

13. INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE PRICES

1953 = 100[a]

	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1958	1959				1960	
							IV	I	II	III	IV	Jan	Feb
URMA													
All agricultural produce	100	96	99	114	112	103	109	96	99	105	111	...	...
Cereals	101	107	103	103	102	110	112	100	104	115	124	...	...
Non-food agricultural produce	114	107	103	124	137	121	128	132	127	112	115	...	...
HINA (Taipei)													
General index	102	117	132	141	143	158	147	152	153	160	166	169	170
Food	105	114	123	135	142	165	149	157	157	168	177	182	184
Apparel	94	110	106	105	107	118	109	115	117	119	120	121	120
Metals and electrical materials[b]	102	158	190	197	189	186	182	184	184	187	188	189	190
Building materials	105	115	153	163	148	166	150	161	170	160	171	188	186
Manufactured products	104	120	143	162	158	167	162	164	165	167	174	176	...
Industrial materials	100	116	138	163	163	191	174	188	190	191	195	196	...
NDIA													
General index	96	88	99	104	107	110	109	108	109	112	114	114	115
Food articles	92	80	93	100	105	111	110	107	109	113	114	110	111
Industrial raw materials	97	91	105	110	107	112	106	107	111	113	116	122	123
Manufactured articles	102	101	106	109	110	111	110	110	110	111	114	118	118
Intermediate products	99	99	112	110	111	113	112	112	110	111	118	124	122
Finished products	102	101	106	109	110	111	110	110	110	111	113	117	117
NDONESIA (Djakarta) (imported goods)													
All articles	109	145	135	160	247	...	301	...	...	...	...	...	...
Provisions	110	144	146	178	244	...	283	...	...	...	...	...	...
Textile goods	110	169	118	137	248	...	312	...	...	...	...	...	...
Chemicals	109	151	137	141	208	...	248	...	...	...	...	...	...
Metals	98	115	135	169	234	...	295	...	...	...	...	...	...
RAN (Teheran)													
General index	118	115	123	123	119	123	119	123	122	122	128	128	128
Domestic products	124	117	124	131	133	146	136	142	145	144	155	153	153
Imported products	107	105	96	88	82	85	84	84	85	86	87	92	92
Exported products[c]	117	116	136	134	125	121	120	120	120	120	123	123	121
APAN													
General index	99	98	102	105	98	99	97	98	98	99	101	101	101
Edible farm products	112	112	109	112	117	116	117	116	116	116	116	116	116
Textiles	92	87	88	82	75	77	72	74	75	78	80	79	77
Chemicals	93	90	94	95	88	85	85	85	85	85	86	86	86
Metal and machinery	94	97	116	119	103	105	100	103	105	106	106	106	106
Building materials	104	96	104	115	107	110	106	109	108	109	113	113	113
Producer goods	96	95	103	107	98	99	95	97	98	99	100	100	99
Consumer goods	103	101	100	102	99	100	99	99	99	100	102	103	102
KOREA, Republic of *(1955=100)*													
General index	...	100	132	153	143	147	141	139	145	152	153	153	156
Foods	...	100	141	168	145	138	135	129	142	146	136	135	142
Metal products and machinery	...	100	130	162	159	176	164	167	171	179	187	188	191
Building materials	...	100	121	135	144	165	155	149	153	166	191	187	184
Textiles	...	100	122	127	126	128	126	121	121	131	140	138	138
Producer goods	...	100	138	156	156	174	159	162	167	179	190	191	192
Consumer goods	...	100	129	152	138	136	133	129	136	141	138	137	141
PHILIPPINES (Manila)													
General index	95	92	95	99	103	104	102	103	103	104	106	107	107
Food	97	95	96	102	105	98	101	98	97	98	100	100	...
Crude materials	88	84	90	92	99	117	109	117	118	112	119	125	...
Chemicals	95	88	88	93	96	100	97	100	99	100	100	101	...
Manufactured goods	96	92	100	103	104	110	102	105	108	112	114	115	...
Domestic products	94	92	94	98	101	101	101	101	101	101	103	104	104
Exported products	88	81	84	88	98	111	107	113	114	105	110	115	114
Imported products	97	92	100	106	110	120	111	114	117	123	125	125	125
THAILAND (Bangkok)													
General index	98	114	117	118	123	115	126	115	116	117	113	118	115
Agricultural produce[d]	98	136	130	130	143	134	153	133	134	133	135	135	132
Foodstuff[d]	96	108	116	115	122	111	123	111	112	114	105	113	110
Clothes	99	102	101	101	101	101	101	101	101	100	100	100	100
Metal	97	126	139	141	108	116	105	112	115	116	123	123	123
Construction materials	103	104	103	105	103	103	102	102	103	103	104	104	104
VIET-NAM (Saigon-Cholon)													
General index	105	117	122	123	124	113	126	117	118	123	117	113	113
Rice and paddy	83	99	113	106	119	76	124	96	94	104	87	80	74
Raw materials	117	145	131	139	126	138	128	130	134	139	152	157	157
Semi-finished products	120	123	131	138	129	126	125	124	128	127	128	126	121
Manufactured products	120	124	121	111	117	111	115	118	122	114	115	111	118
Local products	100	116	123	121	123	106	125	111	111	119	110	106	105
Imported products	121	121	124	130	131	129	128	133	134	130	130	129	131

[a] Original base: *Burma*, 1938-40; *China (Taiwan)*, Jan-Jun 1937 prior to 1959, 1956 since 1959 except indexes of manufactured products and industrial materials for which the base is 1951; *India*, Apr 1952/Mar 1953; *Indonesia*, 1938; *Japan*, 1952; *Republic of Korea*, and *Philippines*, 1955; *Thailand*, Apr 1938/Mar 1939; *Viet-Nam*, 1949.

[b] Beginning 1959, metals and manufactures thereof.

[c] Excluding petroleum.

[d] Agricultural produce including paddy, rice meal, copra, rubber, etc.; foodstuff including milled rice, pork, banana, etc.

14. PRICE QUOTATIONS OF MAJOR EXPORT COMMODITIES

	Unit	1953	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1958	1959				1960	
									IV	I	II	III	IV	Jan	Feb
RICE															
Burma	*£ per L. ton*	60.0	49.0	41.1	35.6	34.2	37.0	32.9	37.0	34.2	33.0	32.7	32.0	32.0	32.0
China(Taiwan)	*NT$ per m.ton*	3,527	3,133	2,634	3,776	3,644	3,643	5,309	3,643	5,307	5,309	—	5,311	—	—
Thailand	*£ per L. ton*	63.4	57.3	50.5	48.9	49.8	53.1	47.7	52.5	47.4	49.1	48.4	45.7	45.5	44.8
SUGAR															
China (Taiwan)	*US$ per ton*	98.2	104.9	104.6	104.3	139.3	98.4	84.4	99.8	83.6	85.5	82.8	85.8	85.1	...
India	*Rs.per maund.*	28.4	31.1	28.1	27.9	30.8	32.5	36.0	35.7	35.7	35.7	35.7	37.0	...	...
Indonesia	*Rp.per 100kg.*	285	308	306	302	350	418	440	440	440	440	440	440	440	440
Philippines	*Peso per picul*	15.2	14.9	13.8	14.0	14.8	15.3	...	15.4	14.5	14.9	15.1	...	...	...
TEA															
Ceylon	*Rs. per lb.*	2.46	3.11	3.30	3.00	2.78	2.75	2.72	2.71	2.69	2.82	2.61	2.79	2.74	2.71
China (Taiwan)	*NT$ per kg.*	9.64	11.25	11.49	11.96	10.03	12.67	10.20	12.36	13.43	17.10	17.84	15.01	16.99	18.27
India	*Rs. per lb.*	2.00	3.18	3.05	2.58	2.63	2.52	2.43	2.35	2.12	2.18	2.68	25.4	2.52	2.37
Indonesia	*Rp.per 100kg.*	1,037	1,469	1,459	*1,072*	*1,097*	*1,116*	*1,039*	*1,081*	*1,172*	*1,091*	*1,012*	*881*	[illegible]	...
PEPPER															
Cambodia	*Ri.per 63.42 kg.*	6,238	4,663	3,507	4,350	4,771	3,465	2,827	3,075	2,783	2,650	2,783	3,092	3,700	4,100
India	*Rs.per maund*	285.9	162.4	131.6	110.9	77.7	71.7	100.2	71.2	94.0	92.5	95.0	119.2	...	...
Indonesia	*Rp.per 100kg.*	2,583	1,478	745	*551*	*469*	*457*	*492*	*417*	*408*	*438*	*480*	*615*	...	...
Sarawak	*M$ per picul*	313.7	159.6	109.6	70.2	69.5	66.9	82.6	70.0[b]	— 72.9 —		— 88.5 —		...	...
Singapore	*M$ per picul*	395.3	204.8	135.6	94.7	72.8	69.8	93.4	68.3	71.5	75.0	88.7	138.3	263.8	227.0
HIDES															
Pakistan	*Rs.per 28 lbs.*[a]	21.61	25.54	31.72	29.49	29.08	29.24	‖104.36	26.75	79.37	101.04	117.03	120.00	116.69	120.00
SKINS															
India	*Rs.per 100 pcs.*	336.0	320.0	287.6	300.4	353.1	336.9	392.9	350.8	375.0	375.0	388.3	433.3	...	...
Pakistan	*Rs.per 100 pcs.*	178.7	208.2	211.9	254.6	287.4	252.5	301.5	241.7	256.2	274.2	365.8	331.2	341.7	350.0
GROUNDNUTS															
India	*Rs.per maund*	29.11	21.36	15.94	24.42	25.34	25.15	28.58	26.42	26.36	28.83	30.36	28.78	...	...
COPRA															
Ceylon	*Rs. per candy*	267.2	246.8	209.5	212..2	239.8	264.8	302.6	272.7	299.1	302.9	299.8	313.7	310.0	323.6
Federation of Malaya	*M$ per picul*	35.30	30.68	26.38	25.70	26.85	35.13	41.29	41.33	43.17	42.17	38.83	41.00	41.00	...
Indonesia	*Rp.per 100kg.*	219	194	193	178	*156*	*179*	*237*	*227*	*256*	*231*	*221*	*240*	[illegible]	...
Philippines	*peso per100kg.*	36.62	30.76	27.12	26.02	28.43	37.70	...	44.99	51.89	50.35	39.20	...	...	...
Singapore	*M$ per picul*	37.59	32.55	28.14	27.45	27.34	33.89	40.89	38.96	42.30	43.26	37.73	40.27	40.94	41.50
RUBBER, NATURAL															
Burma	*K. per lb.*	1.10	0.81	1.29	1.58	1.31	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Cambodia	*Ri. per kg.*	...	13.98	18.69	18.27	17.02	16.47	19.91	17.43	17.64	18.77	20.61	23.39	...	...
Ceylon	*Rs. per lb.*	1.54	1.36	1.56	1.50	1.43	1.24	1.44	1.29	1.29	1.43	1.51	1.65	1.59	1.86
Indonesia	*Rp.per 100kg.*	565	545	888	*821*	*746*	*641*	*804*	*685*	*694*	*778*	*838*	[illegible]	[illegible]	...
Singapore	*M Cents per lb.*	67.44	67.30	114.16	96.76	88.75	80.25	101.28	87.03	87.19	93.27	103.68	116.36	114.11	115.12
Thailand	*Baht per kg.*	7.30	8.17	13.59	11.25	10.87	10.33	14.92[c]	12.01	12.52	14.35	14.93	15.92	17.48	17.23
TIMBER															
Burma	*K.per cu.ton*	929	876	921	923	889	...	...	...						
Federation of Malaya	*M$per 50 cu.ft.*	148.2	149.4	156.6	158.2	144.6	143.3	127.9	140.6	123.9	124.8	122.1	139.5	143.7	...
North Borneo	*M$per 50 cu.ft.*	118.3	82.9	77.9	77.5	66.1	64.7	74.6	66.0	65.4	70.6	75.7	90.9	..	...
Philippines	*Peso per 1,000 bd.ft.*	109	117	114	112	105	102	...	100	102	104	104	...		...
Thailand	*Baht per cu. m.*	2,436	3,023	3,614	4,098	4,090	3,867	3,957[c]	4,238	4,225	3,799	3,958	4,001	4,064	4,080
WOOL, RAW															
Pakistan	*Rs. per lb.*	2.09	2.25	2.15	2.70	2.77	2.06	2.33	2.06	2.16	2.34	2.52	2.31	..	...
COTTON, RAW															
Burma	*K. per lb.*	1.08	1.34	1.33	1.00	1.13	1.02	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
India	*Rs.per 784 lbs.*	710.0	734.0	635.8	786.7	766.7	732.0	767.6	694.8	738.1	770.8	‖794.0	—	...	...
Pakistan	*Rs. per bale*	405.2	443.5	443.6	503.7	511.1	451.3	406.6	393.8	403.1	412.1	412.6	398.4	...	...
JUTE, RAW															
India	*Rs. per 400 lbs.*	132	148	172	173	207	192	190	175	185	185	192	198	205	192
Pakistan	*Rs. per 400 lbs.*	106	135	150	187	214	188	190	172	183	193	186	198	...	...
United Kingdom	*£ per L. ton*	96	102	98	103	114	110	111	106	112	114	108	111	117	114
HEMP, RAW															
Philippines	*Peso per picul*	38.4	28.8	31.0	37.4	46.8	39.2	57.6	44.0	51.1	57.1	61.6	60.8	64.8	70.7
GROUND NUT OIL															
India	*Rs. per quarter*	22.34	15.38	11.92	17.82	19.11	18.79	20.50	18.88	18.74	21.20	21.83	20.23	...	...
PALM OIL															
Indonesia	*Rp.per 100kg.*	214	204	220	*233*	*232*	*212*	*217*	*196*	*201*	*242*	*208*	*217*	*888*	...
COCONUT OIL															
Ceylon	*Rs. per L. ton*	1,519	1,454	1,153	1,168	1,256	1,396	1,688	1,454	1,607	1,663	1,751	[illegible]	1,752	1,802
Philippines	*Peso per kg.*	0.69	0.57	0.46	0.45	0.47	0.66	...	0.82	0.86	0.86	0.70	...	...	...
Singapore	*M$ per picul*	59	55	44	44	46	54	65	63	67	69	61	64	65	65
RAYON YARN															
Japan	*Yen per lb.*	229	209	173	172	171	151	148	148	145	145	150	152	147	147
COTTON PIECE GOODS															
India	*Rs. per lb.*	1.89	1.88	1.80	1.94	2.04	1.81	1.84	1.77	1.80	1.82	1.85	1.90	...	...
Japan	*Yen per yd.*	60	57	50	54	48	42	53	43	50	50	53	59	61	59
JUTE MANUFACTURES															
India (bag)	*Rs.per 100 bags*	98.8	111.8	115.6	111.2	114.6	98.6	98.1	95.5	91.6	94.3	101.5	105.0	...	...
India (hessian)	*Rs.per 100 yd.*	46.1	47.2	45.0	43.0	44.3	43.0	42.4	44.0	42.2	42.4	42.2	42.8	44.2	43.4

14. PRICE QUOTATIONS OF MAJOR EXPORT COMMODITIES *(Cont'd)*

	Unit	1953	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1958	1959				1960	
									IV	I	II	III	IV	Jan	Feb
N															
Indonesia	*Rp.per m.ton*	19,377	14,215	14,986	*16,078*	*16,011*	*15,649*	*15,757*	*15,932*	*15,299*	*15,189*	*15,915*	*16,063*	*64,935*	*66,103*
Singapore	*M$ per picul*	363.9	353.6	365.5	387.0	373.2	369.3	396.9	380.1	395.7	399.4	399.8	393.1	388.3	391.6
Thailand	*Baht per kg.*	20.3	26.9	28.2	28.8	28.9	28.0	31.6[c]	28.3	30.8	30.5	32.3	30.9	32.2	—
ETROLEUM, CRUDE															
Indonesia	*Rp.per m.ton*	76	160	160	*163*	*163*	*181*	*181*	*192*	*195*	*178*	*174*	*196*	592	*510*
Sarawak	*M$ per m.ton*	64	65	63	61	64	65	60	64	—	61 —	—	59 —	. . .	. . .

SPECIFICATIONS:

RICE: *Burma* — Average of export contract prices f.o.b. white rice, No. 1 small mills special ngasein. *China (Taiwan)*—Unit value of export of rice and paddy. *Thailand* — Export price f.o.b. Bangkok, white rice 5% broken; prior to 1955 export contract price f.o.b.

SUGAR: *China (Taiwan)* — Monthly average price of all kinds of sugar f.o.b. *Taiwan* ports. *India* — Wholesale prices, D. 28 Kanpur. *Indonesia* — Domestic wholesale prices of white sugar, Djakarta. *Philippines* — Wholesale prices of centrifugal sugar, Manila.

TEA: *Ceylon* — Average prices for all grades f.o.b. *China (Taiwan)* — Unit value of export of black tea. *India* — Export price at Calcutta auctions, leaf, all types. *Indonesia* — Export prices f.o.b. for B.O.P., O.P., P.S. and B.P.

PEPPER: *Cambodia* — Wholesale prices, black ex store. *India* — Wholesale prices, ungarbled (alleppey) Calcutta. *Indonesia* — Export prices, f.o.b. black Lampong. *Sarawak* — Unit value of exports of black pepper. *Singapore* — Average wholesale prices, black Lampong.

HIDES: *Pakistan* — Average wholesale prices of Karachi unframed arsinicated mixed 12/40 lbs. buffalo), Karachi, since August 1959 10/40 lbs.

SKINS: *India* — Wholesale prices of raw goat skin, average quality, Calcutta. *Pakistan* — Average wholesale prices of sheep skin, Papra (dewooled all primes), Karachi.

GROUNDNUTS: *India* — Wholesale prices of ground nuts, machine shelled, Cuddalore.

COPRA: *Ceylon* — f.o.b. prices for all grades. *Federation of Malaya* — Wholesale prices, sundried. *Indonesia* — Export prices f.o.b. mixed. *Philippines* — Wholesale prices, resecada, Manila. *Singapore* — Wholesale prices, sundried.

RUBBER, NATURAL: *Burma* — Unit value of exports. *Cambodia* — Unit value of exports. *Ceylon* — f.o.b. prices of all grade of rubber excluding latex. *Indonesia* — Export prices f.o.b. R.S.S. 1 and Crepe 1. *Singapore* — Buyers' midday prices, f.o.b. Singapore No. 1 RSS in bales. Annual prices are the averages of daily prices. *Thailand* — Unit value of exports of rubber smoked sheet. Annual figures relate to whole kingdom, monthly and quarterly figures relate to Port of Bangkok only.

TIMBER: *Burma* — Unit value of teak exports. *Federation of Malaya* — Unit value of net exports of timber. *North Borneo* — Unit value of sawn logs for 1953-1954; sawn logs and veneer logs, non-coniferous from 1955 to date. *Philippines* — Unit value of exports of logs and lumber. *Thailand* — Unit value of exports of teak board. Annual figures relate to whole kingdom, monthly and quarterly figures relate to Port of Bangkok only.

WOOL, RAW: *Pakistan* — Unit value of exports.

COTTON, RAW: *Burma* — Unit value of exports. *India* — Wholesale prices, Jarilla M.G.F., Bombay; since August 1959 Jarilla M.G. Madhya Pradesh 25/32" Staple, Bombay. *Pakistan* — Unit value of exports.

JUTE, RAW: *India* — Domestic price at Calcutta, raw lightnings. *Pakistan* — Domestic/export f.o.b. Chittagong, raw, baled, export firsts. *United Kingdom* — Domestic/import price c. and f. Dundee, Pakistan mill firsts.

HEMP, RAW: *Philippines* — Domestic/export price at Manila, Manila Hemp, Grade G.

GROUND-NUT OIL: *India* — Wholesale prices, naked, Bombay.

PALM OIL: *Indonesia* — Export prices f.o.b.

COCONUT OIL: *Ceylon* — f.o.b. prices for all grades. *Philippines* — Wholesale prices, Manila. *Singapore* — f.o.b. Singapore.

RAYON YARN: *Japan* — Export prices f.o.b. viscose, 120 denier hank, 1st grade.

COTTON PIECE GOODS: *India* — Wholesale prices of grey standard shirting 35" × 38 yds. Bombay. *Japan* — Export prices f.o.b., heavy shirting s/2003 grey 38"

JUTE MANUFACTURES: India — Export prices of bags, B-twills 2¼ lbs. 44 × 26½" f.a.s. Calcutta. *India* — Domestic/export prices of hessian cloth 10½ oz. 40" Calcutta.

TIN: *Indonesia* — Unit value of exports of tin and tin ore. *Singapore* — Export prices ex-works. *Thailand* — Unit value of exports of tin ore and tin in concentrates. Annual figures relate to whole kingdom, monthly and quarterly figures relate to Port of Bangkok only.

PETROLEUM, CRUDE: *Indonesia* — Unit value of exports of crude petroleum. *Sarawak* — Unit value of exports of crude petroleum.

a. Since 1959, Rs. per 82 lbs.
b. Average of July-December.
c. Port of Bangkok only.

15. INDEX NUMBERS OF COST OF LIVING

1953 = 100[a]

	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1958	1959				1960	
							IV	I	II	III	IV	Jan	Feb
					A. All items								
BURMA: Rangoon	96	98	111	119	115	99	110	96	97	99	104	. . .	. . .
CAMBODIA: Phnom-Penh	108	121	127	127	135	141	139	135	137	143	147	152	148
CEYLON: Colombo	100	99	99	101	103	104	104	103	104	103	104	104	104
CHINA: Taipei	102	112	123	133	134‖	146	136	137	140	152	153	153	156
FED. OF MALAYA	94	91	92	96	95	92	94	93	92	91	91	93	. . .
HONG KONG	98	95	97	98	96	104	98	105	104	108	100	101	103
INDIA (*interim index*)	95	91	99	105	109	115	114	111	113	118	118	115	115
RAN	118	122	130	139	140	. . .	144	155	166	164	. . .	. . .	. . .
JAPAN (*urban*)	106	105	106	109	108	110	109	108	109	110	111	112	112
KOREA: Seoul	137	231	284	350	339	353	343	342	351	356	363	362	370
LAOS: Vientiane	123	125	141	174	187	199	189	204	204	199	187	. . .	. . .
PAKISTAN: Karachi	98	94	97	106	110	106	103	102	104	108	112	114	115
Narayanganj	84	85	99	104	110	109	107	105	107	112	112	110	112
PHILIPPINES: Manila	99	98	100	102	105	104	107	104	102	105	107	106	105
SINGAPORE	93	91	92	94	92	92	92	92	91	91	92	93	93
THAILAND: Bangkok	100	105	111	118	125	119	121	120	123	118	114	119	117
VIET-NAM: Saigon	113	124	139	133	130	133	131	134	132	134	131	132	131
					B. Food								
BURMA: Rangoon	97	96	106	119	115	94	107	90	91	93	100	. . .	. . .
CAMBODIA: Phnom-Penh	103	119	130	129	141	143	146	140	144	146	146	151	143
CEYLON: Colombo	100	99	97	99	100	99	99	98	101	98	100	99	99
CHINA: Taipei	102	108	126	137	138‖	154	142	142	146	166	163	163	168
FED. OF MALAYA	90	87	88	93	91	88	91	90	88	88	88	. . .	. . .
HONG KONG	95	90	95	95	93	106	96	103	105	111	98	102	105
INDIA (*interim index*)	93	84	96	103	108	115	115	109	112	118	119	. . .	114
INDONESIA: Djakarta	106	141	161	177	258	311	286	306	300	321	319	358	363
IRAN	114	114	121	126	120	. . .	120	131	142	132	. . .	. . .	. . .
JAPAN (*urban*)	108	105	105	108	106	107	107	106	106	108	108	108	109
KOREA: Seoul	116	‖206	282	339	310	308	301	295	310	316	314	312	329
LAOS: Vientiane	122	118	122	157	176	189	179	198	198	189	172	. . .	. . .
PAKISTAN: Karachi	98	95	100	113	117	113	108	106	110	116	119	122	123
Narayanganj	79	80	97	102	105	105	106	101	102	108	110	107	109
PHILIPPINES: Manila	99	98	101	105	111	107	113	106	102	107	111	108	106
SINGAPORE	91	88	89	91	87	86	86	86	85	84	86	87	87
THAILAND: Bangkok	98	103	108	117	126	116	121	118	122	116	110	117	115
VIET-NAM: Saigon	107	121	140	129	125	124	127	128	123	126	121	122	120

GENERAL NOTES: All figures refer to working class expenditures except for the following countries: *China (Taiwan)*, public servants: *Hong Kong*, clerical and technical workers; *Indonesia*, government employees; Japan, urban population; *Republic of Korea*, salary workers and wage earners; *Laos*, middle class; *Singapore*, low income clerks and labourers; *Thailand*, low salaried workers and civil servants.

a. Original base: *Burma*, 1941; *Cambodia*, 1949; *Ceylon*, 1952; *China (Taiwan)*, Jan-Jun 1937 prior to 1959, 1956 since 1959; *Hong Kong*, Mar 1947; *India*, 1949; *Indonesia* July 1938; *Japan*, 1951 for period prior to 1955, 1955 for subsequent years; *Republic of Korea*, 1955; *Laos*, Dec 1948; *Federation of Malaya*, Jan. 1949; *Pakistan*, Apr 1948/Mar 1949; *Philippines*, 1955; *Singapore*, 1939; *Thailand*, Apr 1938/Mar 1939; *Republic of Viet-Nam, 1949.*

16. EMPLOYMENT

End of period

	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1958	1959				1960	
							IV	I	II	III	IV	Jan	Feb
CHINA[a] (Taiwan, *thousand*)													
Mining	53	55	66	74	74	74	74	72	74	74	74	...	...
Manufacturing	258	258	260	261	261	263	261	261	262	262	263	...	...
Transport	64	66	68	71	73	75	73	73	75	75	75	...	...
FEDERATION OF MALAYA[b] (*thousand*)													
Estate[c]	297	309	309	307	314	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Rubber	268	278	280	277	282	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Tin mining	35	40	40	38	26	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Government	...	171	171	189	187	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
INDIA (*thousand*)													
Factories under Factory act[d]	2,530	2,690	3,402	3,480	3,413	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Cotton mills[d]	741	758	807	813	757	[illegible]	770	[illegible]	746	767	771	772	765
Coal mines[e]	341	348	352	370	364	365	368	377	361	361	360	378	...
Central government[f]													
Office workers	221	251	281	300	313	328	313	315	318	323	328	330	...
Manual workers	412	396	388	389	401	415	401	404	406	410	415	416	...
JAPAN[g] (*million*)													
All industries	39.6	40.9	41.7	42.8	43.1	43.7	43.9	41.2	44.9	44.5	44.2	41.0	42.0
Agriculture, forestry and hunting	16.5	16.9	16.4	16.1	15.5	15.4	15.4	12.4	17.0	16.2	15.8	12.8	12.9
Mining	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.6
Manufacturing	7.0	7.1	7.6	8.1	8.6	8.5	8.6	8.7	8.2	8.6	8.5	8.5	8.8
Construction	1.7	1.8	1.8	2.0	2.0	2.2	2.2	2.4	2.2	2.2	2.1	2.0	2.4
Commerce	6.3	6.7	7.0	7.3	7.5	7.6	7.7	7.4	7.6	7.8	7.7	7.7	8.0
Transportation, communication and other public utilities	1.9	1.9	2.1	2.2	2.2	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.2	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.3
Services (non-government)	3.8	4.3	4.6	4.9	5.0	5.2	5.1	5.4	5.1	4.9	5.3	5.2	5.1
PHILIPPINES													
Index of employment[h] (1953=100)													
Mining	77	81	81	77	72	...	75	77	76	76	...	...	...
Manufacturing	106	106	107	113	113	...	115	120	119	116	...	...	...
THAILAND[d] (*thousand*)													
Mining	14.7	15.6	16.6	17.4	14.9	14.1	14.1	14.0	14.1	14.0	14.1	14.2	...

a. Staff and permanent workers.
b. June for 1954, August for 1955, July for 1956 to 1958.
c. Comprising rubber, oil palm, coconut, tea and pineapple.
d. Daily averages.
e. Average daily employment in all coal mines governed by the Indian Mines Act. Monthly figures are slightly short of total coverage.
f. Central government establishments excluding railways. Office workers comprise administrative, executive and clerical staff; manual workers comprise skilled, semi-skilled workers.
g. Average for the week ending on the last day of the month, except for December when the week prior to holiday seasons was chosen.
h. Comprising all full and part-time employees who were on the payroll i.e., who worked during, or received pay for, the pay period ending nearest the 15th of the month. Excluding proprietors, self employed persons, domestic servants and unpaid workers.

17. WAGES

Base for index numbers, 1953[a]

	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1958	1959				1960	
							IV	I	II	III	IV	Jan	Feb
CEYLON													
Index of wages													
Tea and rubber estate workers[b]	102	106	107	108	110	110	110	109	110	110	110	110	110
Government workers (Colombo)[c]	100	104	106	109	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125
CHINA (Taiwan)													
Index of earnings[d]													
Mining	105	131	174	227	243	...	239	240	244	248	...	...	...
Manufacturing	111	125	141	155	165	...	170	179	173	172	...	...	...
INDIA													
Wages or earnings (*rupees*)													
Cotton mills[e] (Bombay, *monthly*)	96.3	94.8	98.8	104.2	111.8	116.3	114.5	112.8	114.2	118.3	119.8	...	...
Coal mines[f] (Jahria, *weekly*)	14.2	14.2	17.4	20.5	22.0	22.8	22.1	22.5	23.0	22.6	23.0	...	...
JAPAN													
Index of earnings[g]													
Mining	101	108	118	137	140	145	165	119	135	159	166	132	129
Manufacturing	105	109	120	124	127	138	151	112	129	139	171	120	121
Daily money wages of agricultural labour, male (*yen*)	285	301	308	323	337	348	341	319	362	353	361	330	...
KOREA, Republic of[r]													
Wages[h] (*thousand hwan*)													
Mining	...	...	...	26.7	27.8	32.7	...	31.4	32.2	32.6	34.6	34.3	33.0
Manufacturing	...	...	...	20.3	21.7	23.4	...	23.0	23.5	23.3	23.8	24.6	23.8
PHILIPPINES													
Index of wages[i] (Manila)													
Skilled	101	101	101	101	104	106	104	105	106	106	107	...	...
Unskilled	99	102	103	102	103	104	104	105	103	103	103	...	...

a. Original base: *Ceylon*, 1939; *China (Taiwan)*, June 1949; *Japan*, 1955; *Philippines*, 1955.
b. Daily rates of minimum wages (basic wages plus special allowance).
c. Monthly wage rates for unskilled male workers in government employment.
d. Daily average of wages and allowances including payment in kind.
e. Monthly minimum basic wages plus dearness allowance.
f. Average weekly earnings (basic wages plus dearness allowance and other payments) of underground miners and loaders in coal mines.
g. Average monthly cash earnings per regular workers.
h. Total monthly average earnings of production workers based on the payroll reports collected from representative sample establishments throughout the country engaged in mining and manufacturing (excluding tobacco and salt manufacturing).
i. Daily average wage rates of all classes of workers.

18. CURRENCY AND BANKING
End of period

	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1958	1959				1960	
							IV	I	II	III	IV	Jan	Feb
RMA (*million kyats*)													
Money supply	842	1,116	1,343	1,106	1,311	1,507	1,311	1,584	1,603	1,566	1,507	1,645	1,610
Currency: net active	567	725	830	746	853	1,043	853	1,120	1,122	1,070	1,043	1,115	1,161
Deposit money	275	391	513	360	458	464	458	464	481	496	464	530	449
Private time deposits (Commercial banks)	77	122	103	100	118	212	118	122	121	130	212	214	156
Government deposits	297	248	248	282	281	262	281	300	294	336	262	...	...
Union Bank of Burma	183	130	117	77	50	48	50	44	26	55	48	34	33
Commercial Bank[a]	114	118	131	205	231	214	231	256	268	281	214	...	...
Bank clearings[r] △	199	246	293	317	270	289	248	240	292	323	302	307	284
Foreign assets	643	540	652	446	576	642	576	599	665	691	642	616	607
Union Bank of Burma	555	415	535	382	490	568	490	501	587	608	568	539	535
Commercial banks	88	124	117	64	86	74	86	98	78	83	74	77	72
Claims on private sector (commercial banks)	212	216	250	343	270	305	270	298	263	265	305	370	396
Claims on government	543	941	1,020	1,002	1,185	1,375	1,185	1,454	1,401	1,399	1,375	1,464	1,455
Union Bank of Burma[b]	388	652	662	762	710	797	710	946	818	773	797	947	952
Commercial banks	155	289	358	240	475	578	475	508	583	626	578	517	503
Rates of interest (*% per annum*)													
Call money rate △	0.98	1.27	0.94	1.42	1.60	1.08	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.33	1.50	1.50
Yield of long term gov't bonds[c] △	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00
Exchange rate (selling)	4.808	4.778	4.808	4.775	4.785	4.790	4.785	4.760	4.760	4.780	4.790	4.790	4.790
MBODIA (*million riels*)													
Money supply													
Currency: in circulation	...	999	1,058	1,355	1,472	1,799	1,472	1,699	1,856	1,775	1,799	...	...
Demand deposits in commercial banks	...	1,035	1,104	693	885	1,143	885	948	1,160	1,063	1,143	...	...
Private time deposits	...	37	15	84	76	159	76	89	133	159	159	...	...
Bank clearings △	273	446	412	481	520	570	514	523	518	613	626	432	...
Foreign assets	...	1,968	2,559	2,911	3,442	3,505	3,442	3,506	3,757	3,718	3,705	...	...
Banque Nationale du Cambodge	...	1,751	2,454	2,756	3,366	3,566	3,366	3,445	3,672	3,552	3,566	3,683	...
Commercial banks	...	217	105	155	76	139	76	62	86	165	139	...	...
Claims on private sector	...	329	563	812	776	1,147	776	787	843	966	1,147	...	...
Claims on government by Banque Nationale du Cambodge	...	1,014	1,014	1,014	1,014	1,014	1,014	1,014	1,014	1,014	1,014	1,014	1,014
EYLON (*million rupees*)													
Money supply[r]	947	1,062	1,118	1,032	1,067	1,169	1,067	1,080	1,085	1,120	1,169	1,171	1,185
Currency: net active	342	384	401	435	530	565	530	529	546	550	565	557	560
Deposit money[r]	605	677	717	597	537	604	537	552	538	569	604	615	625
Private time deposits	420	451	513	560	618	682	618	631	646	654	682	680	678
Government deposits	69	116	176	128	164	100	164	146	136	108	100	110	101
Central Bank of Ceylon	16	42	67	12	28	18	28	15	18	21	18	18	18
Commercial banks	53	74	109	116	136	81	136	131	118	87	81	91	83
Bank clearings △	684	758	735	730	661	714	652	690	693	722	744	727	716
Bank debits[d] △	1,107	1,060	1,063	1,111	970	1,050	951	1,016	1,008	1,056	1,022	1,116	1,078
Foreign assets	656	880	898	700	653	488	653	641	604	557	488	492	493
Central Bank of Ceylon	524	655	737	591	539	387	539	530	495	449	387	389	379
Commercial banks	132	225	161	109	114	102	114	111	109	109	102	103	114
Claims on the private sector (commercial banks)	247	256	344	399	436	458	436	452	447	462	458	473	475
Claims on government	622	601	682	771	918	1,225	918	945	993	1,074	1,225	1,214	1,224
Central Bank of Ceylon	27	18	11	88	261	514	261	273	318	405	514	502	517
Other banks	595	583	671	683	656	711	656	672	674	669	711	711	707
Rates of interest (*% per annum*)													
Call money rate △	0.50	0.50	0.50	1.08	1.25	1.42	1.25	1.25	1.42	1.50	1.50	1.50	1.50
Treasury bill rate △	1.59	0.79	0.68	0.88	1.54	1.93	1.67	1.80	1.91	2.00	2.01	2.11	2.19
Yield of long term gov't bonds[e] △	3.79	3.13	3.04	2.99	2.91	2.76	2.86	2.82	2.79	2.74	2.70	2.67	2.65
Exchange rate (selling)	4.735	4.772	4.800	4.765	4.755	4.753	4.755	4.752	4.749	4.750	4.757	4.758	4.752
HINA (Taiwan, *million new Taiwan dollars*)													
Money supply	2,103	2,636	3,261	3,938	5,238	5,981	5,238	5,184	5,410	5,377	5,981	6,110	5,799
Currency: net active	1,340	1,604	1,883	2,228	2,927	3,277	2,927	2,837	2,897	2,914	3,277	3,618	3,125
Deposit money	763	1,032	1,378	1,710	2,310	2,704	2,310	2,346	2,514	2,463	2,704	2,492	2,674
Private time deposits	887	1,010	1,049	1,473	2,687	3,476	2,687	3,026	3,448	3,279	3,476	3,478	3,634
Government deposits	810	998	1,295	1,606	1,738	1,955	1,738	1,905	1,879	2,061	1,955	2,100	2,176
Bank of Taiwan	743	826	1,167	1,441	1,551	1,727	1,551	1,694	1,685	1,837	1,727	1,905	1,878
Other banks	67	172	128	164	188	228	188	211	194	224	228	196	298
Counterpart funds	631	1,405	1,485	1,678	1,623	1,979	1,623	1,729	2,088	2,321	1,979	1,755	1,717
Bank clearings △	1,720	2,887	3,857	5,121	5,410	6,892	5,568	5,788	6,977	6,813	7,989	7,186	7,868
Foreign assets (Bank of Taiwan: net)	134	504	528	649	1,708	1,524	1,708	1,706	1,974	1,439	1,524	1,494	1,662
Claims on private sector[f]	1,283	2,048	2,286	3,131	4,414	6,212	4,414	4,986	5,828	6,145	6,212	6,367	6,497
Bank of Taiwan	167	402	470	731	1,023	1,619	1,023	1,125	1,466	1,729	1,619	1,633	1,649
Other banks	1,116	1,646	1,816	2,400	3,391	4,593	3,391	3,861	4,362	4,416	4,593	4,734	4,848
Claims on government[g]	1,477	1,687	2,020	2,388	2,444	2,748	2,444	2,528	2,439	2,536	2,748	2,799	2,770
Bank of Taiwan	1,445	1,652	1,974	2,338	2,356	2,437	2,356	2,430	2,195	2,272	2,437	2,503	2,468
Other banks	32	35	46	50	88	311	88	99	244	265	311	296	302
Claims on official entitles[f]	1,596	1,958	2,475	2,817	3,058	3,179	3,058	3,009	2,711	3,229	3,179	3,533	3,120
Bank of Taiwan	1,506	1,860	2,385	2,739	2,956	3,080	2,956	2,927	2,634	3,092	3,080	3,419	2,950
Commercial banks	90	98	90	78	102	99	102	82	77	137	99	114	171

18. CURRENCY AND BANKING *(Cont'd)*

End of period

							1958	1959				1960	
	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	IV	I	II	III	IV	Jan	Feb
CHINA (Taiwan, *million new Taiwan dollars*) (*Cont'd*)													
Exchange rate													
Buying:													
Sugar, Rice Exports	15.55	20.35	20.35	20.35	36.08	39.70	36.08	36.08	36.08	39.75	39.70	39.80	40.00
Other Exports:													
Government	15.55	20.35	26.35	26.35	37.58		37.58	39.28	39.42				
Private	15.55	26.35	26.35										
Non-Trade	15.55	21.95– 29.05	24.68 29.05	24.68 29.05	36.08 37.58		36.08 37.58	36.08 39.28	36.08 39.42				
Selling:													
Government Imports	18.78	24.78	24.78	24.78	36.38	36.38	36.38	36.38	36.38	36.38	36.38	36.33	36.38
Other Imports	18.78	32.28	32.28	32.28	37.78	39.70	37.78	39.48	39.62	39.75	39.70	39.80	40.00
Non-Trade	15.65 18.78	24.78	24.78	24.78	36.38 37.78		36.38 37.78	36.38 39.48	36.38 39.62				
FEDERATION OF MALAYA and SINGAPORE (*million Malayan dollars*)													
Money supply	1,068	1,267	1,268	1,230	1,237r	1,430	1,237r	1,268r	1,293r	1,356r	1,430	1,473	1,507
Currency: net active	711	861	892	889	895	1,016	892r	902r	926r	963r	1,016	1,057	1,059
Deposit money	357	406	376	341	345	414	345	366	367	393	414	421	448
Time deposits	243	338	320	305	352	458	352	373	400	434	458	464	477
Bank debits[h] △	...	1,438	1,600	1,679	1,628	1,762	1,707	1,715	1,743	1,744r	1,862	1,984	1,851
Foreign assets	1,289	1,539	1,468	1,375	1,481r	1,734	1,481r	1,554r	1,534r	[illegible]	1,734	1,740	1,750
Currency Board	892	965	992	1,004	1,082	1,352	1,082	1,238r	1,239r	[illegible]	1,352	1,389	1,381
Other banks (net)	397	574	476	371	399r	382	399r	316r	295r	[illegible]	382	[illegible]	[illegible]
Claims on private sector	217	244	292	330	349	429	349	[illegible]	366	404	429	477	501
Claims on government	43	37	45	38	35r	68	35r	41r	43r	56r	68	72	71
Exchange rate (*par rate*)	3.06	3.06	3.06	3.06	3.06	3.06	3.06	3.04	3.05	3.05	3.05	3.06	3.06
HONG KONG (*million HK dollars*)													
Money supply													
Currency notes: in circulation	728	727	732	755	772	838	772	789	789	806	838	942	886
Bank clearings △	1,140	1,160	1,276	1,412	1,309	1,480	1,307	1,218	1,411	1,501	1,733	1,930	1,701
INDIA (*thousand million rupees*)													
Money supply	18.32	20.47	21.79	22.76	23.50	25.19	23.50	24.99	25.31	24.61	25.19	25.89	26.20
Currency: net active	12.25	13.86	14.35	15.27	16.06	17.53	16.06	17.25	17.35	[illegible]	17.53	17.94	18.25
Deposit money	6.08	6.61	6.93	7.49	7.43	7.67	7.43	7.74	7.96	7.58	7.67	7.96	7.94
Private time deposits	5.26	6.13	6.98	8.93	11.40	13.90	11.40	11.95	12.08	13.55	13.90	13.97	14.13
Government deposits[r] (Reserve Bank of India)	0.77	0.70	0.73	0.73	0.79	0.79	0.79	1.07	0.73	0.80	0.79	0.78	0.89
Bank clearings △	5.58	6.52	7.03	7.41	7.96	8.93	8.19	8.33	8.55	8.85	9.39	9.98	9.44
Foreign assets (Reserve Bank of India)	7.71	7.75	6.48	4.15	3.07	3.31	3.07	3.11	2.96	2.99	3.31	3.25	3.17
Claims on private sector	6.16	7.04	8.84	10.14	10.38	11.62	10.38	11.61	11.78	11.30	11.62	12.20	11.64
Commercial banks	5.95	6.78	8.48	9.59	9.64	10.56	9.64	[illegible]	[illegible]	10.25	10.56	11.11	10.55
Cooperative banks	0.21	0.26	0.36	0.55	0.74	1.07	0.74	0.75	0.89	1.05	1.07	1.09	1.09
Claims on government	12.11	14.05	16.93	21.88	26.33	29.07	26.33	26.91	28.16	28.45	29.07	29.33	29.39
Reserve Bank of India	6.04	7.13	9.82	14.13	16.35	17.35	16.35	[illegible]	[illegible]	16.52	17.35	17.60	17.83
Other banks	4.98	5.74	5.96	6.63	8.84	10.50	8.84	[illegible]	[illegible]	10.46	10.50	10.43	10.28
Treasury currency	1.09	1.18	1.15	1.12	1.14	1.21	1.14	1.21	1.24	1.16	1.21	1.25	1.28
Rates of interest (*% per annum*)													
Call money rate △	2.35	2.59	3.21	3.27	1.12– 4.12	0.75– 3.75	1.12– 3.50	3.25– 3.69	1.00 3.75	0.75– 3.50	0.75 3.50	3.50	3.50
Yield of long-term gov't bonds[l] △	3.65	3.72	3.92	4.13	4.17	4.05	4.09	4.15	4.06	4.05	4.04	4.06	4.06
Exchange rate (selling)	4.808	4.778	4.805	4.770	4.780	4.783	4.780	4.755	4.758	4.778	4.783	4.778	4.775
INDONESIA (*thousand million rupiah*)													
Money supply	11.12	12.23	13.39	18.91	29.37	34.67	29.37	[illegible]	[illegible]	24.76r	31.67	...	...
Currency: net active	7.47	8.65	9.37	14.09	19.87	...	19.87	20.09	22.81	20.12	...	...	...
Deposit money	3.64	3.59	4.02	4.82	9.49	...	9.49	9.93	9.54	4.54		...	...
Private time deposits	0.27	0.33	0.29	0.29	0.34	0.18	0.34	0.35	0.40	0.18	0.18	...	...
Foreign assets (net)	1.73	2.77r	1.66r	1.26	2.48	...	2.48	[illegible]	2.73r	3.64	...	...	...
Bank Indonesia (net)	1.15	1.95	0.90	0.58	2.15	12.51	2.15	2.52	2.03	2.73	12.67r	13.54	13.96
Gross foreign assets	2.89	3.50	2.90r	2.55	2.48	13.54	2.48	2.74	2.23	3.05	13.74r	14.53	14.90
Foreign liabilities[j]	1.74	1.55	1.99	1.97	0.33	1.03	0.33	0.22	0.20	0.32	1.07r	0.99	0.94
Other banks	0.58	0.79	0.76	0.68	0.33	...	0.33	0.37	0.70	0.91	...	...	...
Claims on private sector	2.83	4.02	4.93r	4.47	6.56	13.14	6.56	7.40	8.38	8.90	13.14	...	...
Bank Indonesia	0.46	0.86	0.86r	0.77	1.77	2.46	1.77	1.34	1.56	2.33	2.46	...	...
Other banks	2.37	3.16	4.07r	3.73	4.79	10.68	4.79	6.06	6.82	6.57	10.68	...	...
Claims on government	9.26	9.30	14.69r	20.77	30.60	...	30.60	33.04	35.83	31.39	...	...	...
Bank Indonesia	8.61	8.50	12.30r	19.15	28.46	32.06	28.46	30.85	33.56	29.09	32.06	30.92	30.37
Other banks	0.02	0.02	1.53	0.67	1.03	0.90	1.03	1.04	1.08	1.07	0.90	...	...
Treasury currency	0.63	0.78	0.86r	0.95	1.11	...	1.11	1.15	1.19	1.27	...	...	...
Exchange rate:													
Principal export rate	11.36	11.36	11.36 13.57	22.7	30.3	36.0	30.3	30.3	30.3	36.0	36.0	36.0	36.0
Principal import rate	11.44	11.48– 22.95	11.48 22.95	28.4 41.6	37.9– 56.8	45.0– 67.5	37.9– 56.8	37.9– 56.8	37.9 56.8	45.0 67.5	45.0– 67.5	45.0 67.5	45.0– 67.5
Other import rate	15.26– 22.89	34.42– 57.38	28.68 57.38	56.8 78.1	75.8 104.2	90.0 135.0	75.8– 104.2	75.8– 104.2	75.8 104.2	90.0– 135.0	90.0– 135.0	90.0– 135.0	90.0– 135.0

18. CURRENCY AND BANKING *(Cont'd)*

End of period

	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1958	1959				1960	
							IV	I	II	III	IV	Jan	Feb
AN *(thousand million rials, 20th of last month of period)*													
Money supply	18.52	20.22	23.59	27.70	36.33	39.96	36.33	36.70	37.25	38.77	39.96	39.40	...
Currency: net active	16.84	17.71	20.78	24.26	27.79	30.48	27.79	30.83	29.59	30.75	30.48	30.21	...
Deposit money	1.68	2.51	2.81	3.44	7.00	9.49	7.00	5.86	7.66	8.02	9.49	9.19	...
Private time deposits	3.68	4.12	5.31	5.79	7.30	9.80	7.30	8.78	8.82	9.08	9.80	10.37	...
Government deposits	3.97	4.08	4.57	6.07	8.08	11.28	8.08	7.53	10.25	9.12	11.28	12.81	10.53
Bank debits △	13.98	15.33	16.80	18.20	20.71	...	25.14	21.15	20.26	...	...	...	...
Foreign assets[k] (National bank)	6.76	7.11	8.44	18.57	19.13	16.12	19.13	17.29	15.84	14.40	16.12	18.84	16.11
Claims on private sector	8.06	9.71	10.81	13.98	22.61	32.24	22.61	25.28	27.26	30.80	32.24	32.74	...
National Bank	4.49	5.72	7.45	8.37	12.73	15.87	12.73	13.89	13.56	15.31	15.87	16.16	16.16
Commercial banks	3.57	3.99	3.36	5.61	9.88	16.37	9.88	11.40	13.70	15.49	16.37	16.57	...
Claims on government (National bank)	11.24	11.08	11.94	12.59	14.14	13.64	14.14	14.90	14.56	14.05	13.64	14.22	14.00
Claims on official entities (National bank)	5.82	6.24	6.88	9.09	12.27	15.60	12.27	12.74	13.67	15.46	15.60	14.16	15.36
Exchange rate: selling	84.50	76.50	76.50	76.50	76.50	76.50	76.50	76.50	76.50	76.50	76.50	76.50	76.50
APAN *(thousand million yen)*													
Money supply	2,013	2,331	2,714	2,824	3,185	3,711	3,185	2,960	3,023	3,117	3,711	...	...
Currency: net active	586	627	721	750	793	923	793	646	703	685	923	...	...
Deposit money	1,427	1,705	1,994	2,074	2,392	2,788	2,392	2,318	2,321	2,432	2,788	...	...
Time deposits (other banks)	2,534	3,064	3,837	4,767	5,867	7,236	5,867	6,195	6,447	6,830	7,236	...	...
Government deposits	171	179	210	221	251	279	251	355	258	256	279	...	...
Bank of Japan	67	61	66	46	54	54	54	158	41	36	54	...	...
Other banks	104	118	144	175	197	225	197	197	218	220	225	...	...
Bank clearings △	2,430	2,750	3,342	4,264	4,745	4,775	5,132	4,585	4,641	4,730	5,134	4,233	5,054
Foreign assets	302	447	457	272	396	302	396	436	451	466	302	...	...
Bank of Japan	— 31	170	153	— 6	91	186	91	122	146	148	186	...	...
Foreign Exchange Fund	342	289	355	282	305	183	305	326	354	374	183	...	...
Other banks	— 9	— 12	— 51	— 4	—	— 67	—	— 11	— 49	— 56	— 67	...	...
Claims on private sector	4,164	4,684	5,917	7,253	8,501	10,175	8,501	8,840	9,177	9,690	10,175	...	...
Claims on government	264	450	465	471	675	845	675	609	522	492	845	...	...
Rates of interest (*% per annum*)													
Call money rate (Tokyo) △	7.84	7.36	6.57	10.94	9.69	8.43	8.22	8.34	8.58	8.40	8.40	8.40	8.40
Yield of long-term gov't bonds[m] △	7.01	6.33	6.34	6.33	6.32	6.32	6.32	6.32	6.32	6.32	6.32	...	...
Exchange rate (*par rate*)	360.0	360.0	360.0	360.0	360.0	360.0	360.0	360.0	360.0	360.0	360.0	360.0	360.0
OREA, Republic of (*thousand million hwan*)													
Money supply	62.2	99.6	136.1	158.4	213.5	212.0	213.5	233.5	208.4	206.1	212.0	219.9	220.5
Currency: in circulation	40.0	58.8	73.4	86.2	111.1	123.8	111.1	98.7	94.0	102.0	123.8	128.9	121.8
Deposit money	22.2	40.8	62.8	72.2	102.4	88.2	102.4	134.8	114.4	104.1	88.2	91.0	98.7
Uncleared checks and bills	4.1	5.9	14.9	12.9	20.5	2.1	20.5	22.0	1.7	2.3	2.1	2.2	3.3
Time deposits[n]	5.0	10.0	16.9	17.6	24.0	63.4	24.0	29.6	40.2	48.5	63.4	68.5	77.4
Bank clearings △	51.8	107.4	207.7	201.2	226.9	292.3	267.9	274.9	286.4	285.9	322.2	341.0	340.3
Bank debits △	...	...	306.5	361.3	417.5	559.9	498.0	471.6	577.8	549.6	640.4	653.0	...
Government deposits	17.6	33.4	68.0	133.0	125.9	125.0	125.9	122.3	116.2	119.7	125.0	120.2	88.3
Counterpart funds	16.1	14.2	83.0	115.9	104.5	69.4	104.5	114.3	84.1	82.4	69.4	53.8	45.0
Foreign assets (Bank of Korea: net)[r]	10.5	24.0	25.5	33.5	49.3	50.5	49.3	50.8	49.7	52.3	50.5	49.9	63.7
Gross foreign assets	19.0	47.4	48.6	57.0	72.4	72.7	72.4	73.9	72.5	74.5	72.7	72.0	92.3
Foreign liabilities[p]	8.5	23.4	23.1	23.5	23.1	22.2	23.1	23.1	22.8	22.2	22.2	22.1	28.6
Claims on private sector	24.2	42.7	76.9	113.5	162.8	187.0	162.8	175.5	178.4	180.7	187.0	202.8	207.4
Bank of Korea	2.0	5.5	5.8	5.9	5.4	5.9	5.4	5.3	5.3	5.8	5.9	6.0	7.9
Other banks	22.2	37.2	71.1	107.7	157.4	91.5	157.4	170.2	173.2	175.2	181.1	196.8	199.5
Claims on government	68.7	111.4	213.5	304.9	308.3	300.0	308.3	324.9	297.8	291.3	300.0	279.5	238.7
Bank of Korea	67.5	109.5	209.7	299.9	303.4	295.5	303.4	320.1	293.0	286.6	295.5	275.0	235.7
Other banks	1.3	1.9	3.7	5.0	4.9	4.5	4.9	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.5	4.5	3.0
Claims on official entities	1.0	3.5	5.4	9.6	17.5	17.4	17.5	17.3	17.1	16.9	17.4	17.5	17.4
Bank of Korea	0.5	2.7	4.0	8.0	16.0	16.0	16.0	16.0	16.0	16.0	16.0	16.0	15.9
Commercial banks	0.4	0.8	1.4	1.6	1.5	1.4	1.5	1.3	1.2	1.0	1.4	1.5	1.5
Exchange rate (official)	180	500	500	500	500	500	500	500	500	500	500	500	650
PAKISTAN (*million rupees*)													
Money supply	3,803	4,369	4,923	5,234	5,502	5,762	5,502	5,447	5,560	5,496	5,762	5,888	5,814
Currency in circulation	2,575	2,990	3,466	3,583	3,742	3,844	3,742	3,656	3,647	3,543	3,844	3,974	3,906
Deposit money	1,281	1,556	1,469	1,655	1,770	1,918	1,770	1,861	1,935	1,986	1,918	1,914	1,908
Time deposits	807	889	968	1,083	1,180	1,454	1,180	1,171	1,239	1,346	1,454	1,503	1,502
Bank clearings[q] △	555	593	696	761	789	980	816	928	860	933	1,205	1,253	1,161
Government deposits[r]	222	163	61	69	65	200	65	164	177	351	200	110	39
Foreign assets (State Bank of Pakistan)[s]	1,038	1,648	1,659	1,268	1,228	1,410	1,228	1,234	1,304	1,385	1,410	1,456	1,456
Claims on private sector (scheduled banks)	984	1,183	1,256	1,294	1,314	1,509	1,314	1,290	1,200	1,235	1,509	1,593	1,579
Claims on government	2,572	2,501	3,055	3,684	3,998	4,098	3,998	3,981	3,916	3,859	4,098	4,196	4,122
State Bank of Pakistan	1,404	1,205	1,663	2,125	2,329	2,230	2,329	2,291	2,166	2,026	2,230	2,326	2,299
Other banks	937	1,036	1,119	1,260	1,367	1,558	1,367	1,382	1,446	1,532	1,558	1,556	1,508
Treasury currency	230	260	283	298	302	310	302	308	305	300	310	314	315
Claims on provincial governments	145	122	117	228	256	271	256	194	220	246	271	293	220
State Bank of Pakistan	53	12	2	119	122	93	122	60	86	79	93	115	43
Scheduled banks	92	110	115	109	134	178	134	134	134	166	178	178	177
Rates of interest (% *per annum*)													
Call money rate △	1.30	1.45	2.04	2.03	1.66	1.66	2.29	2.43	1.28	0.95	1.44	3.83	3.81
Yield of long-term government banks[t] △	3.14	3.15	3.15	3.20	3.20	3.25	3.21	3.22	3.23	3.23	3.31	3.47	3.47
Exchange rate (selling)	3.340	4.782	4.805	4.778	4.785	4.790	4.785	4.762	4.765	4.782	4.790	4.782	4.780

18. CURRENCY AND BANKING *(Cont'd)*

End of period

	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1958	1959				1960	
							IV	I	II	III	IV	Jan	Feb
PHILIPPINES (*million pesos*)													
Money supply	1,226	1,336	1,499	1,598	1,738	1,842	1,738	1,826	1,790	1,813	1,842	. . .	. . .
Currency: net active	676	670	718	781	818	894	818	807	796	822	894	874	. . .
Deposit money	550	666	780	817	919	948	919	1,019	994	991	948	. . .	. . .
Private time deposits	526	586	658	803	868	1,032	868	911	932	976	1,032	. . .	. . .
Bank clearings Δ	550	614	739	876	915	. . .	895	995	1,203	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .
Bank debits[u] Δ	815	921	1,145	1,335	1,492	. . .	1,484	1,559	1,770	1,790	. . .	. . .	. . .
Government deposits	132	196	281	169	225	278	225	201	363	288	278	. . .	. . .
Central Bank of the Philippines	32	63	112	56	154	207	154	140	298	216	207	. . .	. . .
Philippine National Bank	100	133	168	113	71	71	71	61	65	72	71	. . .	. . .
Foreign assets (*net*)	545	418	450	201	182	311	182	216	244	319	311	. . .	. . .
Central Bank	415	310	322	62	75	165	75	83	111	162	165	160	157
Other banks	130	108	118	139	107	146	107	133	135	157	146	. . .	. . .
Claims on private sector (other banks)	939	1,106	1,254	1,513	1,588	1,779	1,588	1,633	1,650	1,703	1,779	. . .	. . .
Claims on government	417	577	707	780	907	1,041	907	919	1,034	980	1,041	. . .	. . .
Central Bank of the Philippines	304	349	381	632	762	897	762	767	887	836	897	. . .	. . .
Other banks	113	228	326	147	144	143	144	152	148	143	143	. . .	. . .
Claims on official entities	160	226	268	376	462	501	462	494	489	494	501	. . .	. . .
Central Bank of the Philippines[v]	115	185	198	315	393	418	393	407	409	409	418	. . .	. . .
Other banks	45	41	68	60	69	84	69	87	80	85	84	. . .	. . .
Exchange rate (selling)	2.358 2.015	2.358 2.015	2.015	2.015	2.015	2.519 2.015	2.015	2.015	2.015	2.519 2.015	2.519 2.015	2.519 2.015	2.519 2.015
THAILAND (*million baht*)													
Money supply	6,245	7,195	7,700	8,041	8,342	8,916	8,342	8,575	8,123	8,363	8,916	9,134	9,197
Currency: net active	4,548	5,176	5,419	5,577	5,504	5,818	5,504	5,792	5,428	5,450	5,818	6,072	6,030
Deposit money	1,697	2,019	2,281	2,464	2,838	3,099	2,838	2,783	2,695	2,913	3,099	3,062	3,167
Time deposits	652	824	1,048	1,223	1,459	1,701	1,459	1,463	1,494	1,649	1,701	1,731	1,742
Government deposits	974	1,110	1,244	1,362	1,287	. . .	1,287	1,409	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .
Bank of Thailand	693	763	1,132	1,120	1,086	. . .	1,086	1,196	1,349	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .
Deposit money banks	281	347	112	242	201	. . .	201	213	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .
Bank clearings Δ	2,230	2,598	2,816	3,095	3,451	3,764	3,414	3,881	3,884	3,481	3,811	3,898	4,089
Foreign assets	192	2,635	2,905	3,036	2,960	3,036	2,960	3,048	3,124	3,035	3,036	3,128	3,139
Bank of Thailand	3,426	4,585	4,840	5,172	5,096	5,173	5,096	5,184	5,261	5,171	5,173	5,266	5,274
Exchange Fund	—	1,252	1,244	1,026	1,026	1,026	1,026	1,026	1,026	1,026	1,026	1,026	1,026
Profits on exchange	3,233	3,202	3,178	3,163	3,163	3,163	3,163	3,163	3,163	3,163	3,163	3,164	3,164
Claims on private sector	2,281	3,000	3,440	4,084	4,788	5,379	4,788	5,095	5,088	5,260	5,379	5,619	5,735
Claims on government	6,520	5,724	6,147	6,277	6,636	7,019	6,636	6,645	6,490	6,613	7,019	6,966	7,142
Bank of Thailand	6,340	5,452	5,854	5,934	6,242	6,446	6,242	6,296	6,072	6,135	6,446	6,359	6,507
Deposit money banks	180	272	293	343	394	573	394	349	418	478	573	607	635
Treasury bill rate (*% per annum*) Δ	2.27	2.26	2.28	2.27	2.91	2.99	2.98	2.99	2.99	2.99	2.99	2.99	2.99
Exchange rate (selling)	20.88	20.91	20.66	20.90	21.10	21.19	21.10	21.19	21.17	21.19	21.19	21.19	21.19
VIET-NAM, Republic of (*thousand million piastre*)													
Money supply	. . .	12.32	12.35	11.60	11.71	14.41	11.71	12.63	12.82	13.51	14.41	15.31	15.61
Currency: net active	. . .	6.78	8.26	7.56	7.86	8.91	7.86	8.56	8.36	8.65	8.90	9.98	10.01
Deposit money	. . .	5.55	4.09	4.05	3.86	5.51	3.86	4.06	4.45	4.85	5.51	5.33	5.60
Time deposits	. . .	0.50	1.26	0.85	1.08	0.84	1.08	1.40	1.12	0.95	0.84	1.26	1.28
Bank clearings Δ	. . .	3.13	2.86	3.20	3.21	3.43	2.85	3.33	3.42	3.32	3.66	3.41	3.72
Foreign assets	. . .	4.29	4.64	5.12	5.89	6.34	5.89	5.39	5.41	5.84	6.34	6.45	. . .
Banque Nationale du Viet-Nam	1.05	4.36	4.61	4.82	5.57	6.00	5.57	5.18	5.24	5.68	6.00	6.10	. . .
Other banks (net)	. . .	0.07	0.03	0.30	0.32	0.34	0.32	0.21	0.18	0.15	0.34	0.35	. . .
Claims on private sector	. . .	1.62	1.81	3.22	3.01	3.54	3.01	3.37	3.38	3.53	3.54	3.82	. . .
Claims on government	10.68	10.68	10.68	10.68	10.68	10.78	10.68	10.68	10.68	10.68	10.78	10.78	. . .
Banque Nationale du Viet-Nam	10.68	10.68	10.68	10.68	10.68	10.78	10.68	10.68	10.68	10.68	10.78	10.78	. . .
Exchange rate:													
Official rate	35.00	35.00	35.00	35.00	35.00	35.00	35.00	35.00	35.00	35.00	35.00	35.00	35.00
Controlled free rate	—	—	—	73.00	73.50	73.50	73.50	73.50	73.50	73.50	73.50	73.50	73.50

GENERAL NOTE: *Net active currency:* Total currency outstanding less holdings in all banks including the central bank and in government treasuries. *Currency in circulation:* Total currency outstanding less holdings in all banks including the central bank. *Deposit money:* Private deposits in all banks, subject to cheque or withdrawable on demand, excluding inter-bank liabilities. *Government deposits:* Including government currency holdings. *Bank clearings:* Total value of cheques and other collection items cleared through clearing houses. *Claims on private sector:* Claims by the banking system arising from the rendering of loans and advances, discounting of bills, the holding of securities in private companies, etc. *Claims on government:* Holdings of government bonds, treasury bills and government guaranteed securities by the banking system, plus circulation of treasury currency. *Rates of interest:* Rates prevailing in the capital city, except for India, where Bombay rates are used. *Call money rate* is inter-bank rate on money at call. *Exchange rates* are shown in unit of national currency per US dollar.

For the detailed explanation please see IMF: International Financial Statistics.

Δ Monthly averages or calendar months.

a. Deposits of State Boards in State Commercial Bank (excluding the State Agricultural Bank).

b. Including a constant amount of 99 million kyats, which is the value of a promissory note issued as cover for the currency issue.

c. 5 year treasury bonds.

d. Debits to demand deposits of private sector.

e. 3% national development loan 1965-1970 to earliest redemption date.

f. Including bank's holdings of stocks and debentures.

g. Including the counterpart of post office demand deposits.

h. Cheques sent out for local clearing and debits to current deposit accounts.

i. Running yield of 3% consols 1986 to earliest redemption date.

j. Payments agreement liabilities, mainly to Japan and the Netherlands.

k. Foreign assets were revalued in May 1957. The revaluation proceeds (7 billion rials) are held by the National Bank and are to be used for long term development.

m. Weighted yield (simple rate of interest) to latest redemption date of medium dated government bonds issued during the period stated.

n. Including deposits of local government and government institutions in commercial banks and non-governmental foreign currency deposits in Bank of Korea.

p. Clearing accounts with Japan.

q. The number of clearing houses was increased in 1952 and 1953.

s. Including outstanding assets receivable from the Reserve Bank of India under the partition agreements; excluding foreign assets of Banking Department.

t. Yield to maturity of 3% bonds 1968.

u. Total debits to checking account of private sector, except for 1948 when debits to government deposits are included.

v. Including a constant amount of 107 million pesos from 1952, representing the difference between foreign assets transferred from the Treasury and its note and coin issue, for which the Bank assumed liability.

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